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INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION AND COGNITIVE
COMPLEXITY OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by



GARY EDWARD TORBIT

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Interpersonal Attraction and Cognitive Complexity of High School Students" submitted by Gary Edward Torbit in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to determine some factors which may account for differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of students. Central to the study was the basic assumption that similarity of shared attributes facilitates interpersonal attraction between persons (Byrne, 1969; Byrne & Clore, 1967). Another aspect of this investigation was to examine differences in the social attractiveness of students in relation to theories of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discriminative abilities (Bieri, 1955; Carr, 1965; Harvey, Hunt & Schroder, 1961; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967). Some additional demographic variables including - frequency of interaction, scholastic achievement, and socioeconomic status, were also investigated to determine the relative effect of these variables as a consequence of differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of students.

A sample of 30 socially preferred (15 males and 15 females) and 29 socially non-preferred (15 males and 14 females) subjects, ranging in age from 15 to 17 years, were selected from a population of grade eleven students, according to sociometric choice.

Several findings emerged from this investigation which served to differentiate between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects. Socially preferred subjects perceived greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred subjects. Socially preferred subjects were also

found to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, both at school and outside the school setting, than did socially non-preferred subjects. Another finding was that socially preferred subjects attained a higher level of scholastic achievement, and tended to be more similar to one another in academic performance, than socially non-preferred subjects. However, differences were found according to sex membership, such that, socially preferred males attained a higher scholastic standing than socially non-preferred males; while differences in scholastic achievement between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were not statistically significant. Finally, the results concerning cognitive complexity and interpersonal discrimination, as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970), revealed greater differentiation of personal constructs on the part of socially preferred subjects. The personal constructs of socially preferred subjects were found to facilitate greater interpersonal discrimination between 'self' and others, than did the personal constructs manifest by socially non-preferred subjects. Again differences were observed according to sex membership, with respect to measures of interpersonal discriminative ability. Socially preferred males were found to make finer discriminations between 'self' and others and to perceive greater self-distinctiveness, than did socially non-preferred males. However, no statistically significant differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females with respect to measures

of interpersonal discrimination. The performance of socially preferred subjects on the measure of cognitive complexity was interpreted as providing general support for the "frequency of interaction" hypothesis proposed by Crockett (1965).

The implications of the aforementioned results were discussed in relation to further research concerning other variables facilitating interpersonal attraction between students. Also, a developmental study designed to investigate interpersonal attraction in relation to theories of cognitive complexity (Carr, 1965; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967) was suggested. Finally, implications for the counselling process involving the facilitation of interpersonal attraction between students were discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As a result of societal changes during the past several decades schools have felt an increased obligation to help students learn behavioral skills that will equip them to fill responsible roles in society and to contribute maximally to the productivity of groups. Concurrent with the teaching of an academic curriculum, many educators have expressed concern with the development of skills in interpersonal relationships, with the adequacy of the student's relationships to his classmates and teachers, as well as to himself. Furthermore, the importance of successful human relations in facilitating a student's academic achievement and personal adjustment has been supported by previous research (Fox, Luszki & Schmuck, 1966). Schmuck and Schmuck (1971) have strongly urged school personnel to accept more responsibility for the social development of students, arguing that:

The students in a classroom can be considered as a collection of individuals who relate to one another informally and formally simultaneously. They perform in the physical presence of one another in order to develop themselves intellectually and emotionally. Their informal relationships of friendship, influence, prestige, and respect can have decided effects on the manner in which the more formal requirements of the student role are accomplished by the individual youngsters. As these informal peer relationships increase in power and salience, the individual's definition and evaluation of himself become more and more vulnerable to peer group influence. Each student's self-concept is on the line within the

classroom setting where the quality of informal relationships can be either threatening and debilitating, or supporting and enhancing to the development of self-esteem. The more threatening or supportive the interpersonal relationships in the classroom become, the more likely will the individual student's academic learning and classroom behavior be effected. In short, emotionally-laden interpersonal relationships that occur informally can affect the student's self-concept which, in turn, can influence his intellectual performance (p. 14, 1971).

While previous research (e.g., Lippitt & Gold, 1959; Pope, 1953) has indicated certain behavioral characteristics which serve to differentiate between "liked" and "disliked" students, little investigation has been devoted to discerning factors which facilitate interpersonal relationships between students. It would seem reasonable to propose, then, that efforts on the part of school personnel (e.g., teachers and counsellors) to enhance the social development of students might be facilitated by investigating the interpersonal behavior of students who enjoy successful human relationships with their peers, as compared with those students who are relatively unsuccessful in their interpersonal relations.

A review of literature pertaining to interpersonal attraction was undertaken in order to determine some factors which may enhance interpersonal relationships between students. Proximity and frequency of interaction were early identified as important situational variables in sociometric choice (Gullahorn, 1952; Lundberg & Beazley, 1948), but not sufficient conditions for the development of friendships. Subsequently, such factors as age and physical attractiveness have been shown to act as further filters for the individual (Byrne, London &

Reeves, 1968).

More recently, a considerable amount of research has been devoted to validating the similarity-attraction paradigm as one major determinant of interpersonal attraction (Byrne, 1969; Novak & Lerner, 1968; Senn, 1971; Stalling, 1970). The basic assumption underlying this paradigm is that the perception of shared attributes between persons results in their being attracted to one another (Byrne & Clore, 1967). This latter assumption was investigated in the course of the present study. More specifically, one concern of this investigation was to determine whether socially preferred students share more attributes (e.g., personality characteristics) in common with their peers, than do socially non-preferred students. An instrument called the Personality Trait Index was developed to assess personality similarity, as well as the accuracy with which socially preferred and socially non-preferred students perceive similarities and differences between themselves and other students.

Another question which this study was designed to answer was whether cognitive differences existed between socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, influencing their perception of similarities and differences between themselves and other persons. Person perception theorists contend, for example, that the characteristics of the perceiver are important variables influencing the process of perceiving, judging, and evaluating others (Tagirui, 1958). Further, some personality theorists (Kelly, 1955; Lewin, 1935) propose that the personality characteristics of the individual can be construed within a

general cognitive framework, the organization of which influences one's ability to make interpersonal discriminations. It has further been hypothesized that an individual's interpersonal discriminative ability varies as a function of increased differentiation, or complexity, of cognitive structure (Bieri, 1955; Harvey, Hunt & Schroder, 1961; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967); and that cognitive complexity varies as a function of the "frequency and intensity" with which one interacts with social stimuli (Crockett, 1965). A second assumption underlying the present investigation, then, was that socially preferred students would be more cognitively complex, and make finer interpersonal discriminations, than would socially non-preferred students. Measures of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discrimination were obtained by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970).

A sample of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were selected from a target population of grade eleven students on the basis of sociometric choice. Socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were compared with their preferred classmates to determine whether group differences existed with respect to measures of personality similarity. Within group comparisons were made to determine whether socially preferred subjects were more similar to each other with regard to such variables as scholastic ability and intelligence, than were socially non-preferred subjects. And finally, measures of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discriminative ability were obtained to determine whether socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects differed with respect to these variables

thus influencing their perception of personal characteristics which may facilitate the development of meaningful interpersonal relationships.

The theoretical rationales underlying interpersonal attraction and cognitive complexity, including the research hypotheses, are presented in the second chapter. Operational definitions of variables, instrumentation, and experimental procedure constitute the third chapter. The results are presented and discussed in the fourth and fifth chapters, followed by a summary of the study as well as a statement of its limitations and implications in the final chapter.

CHAPTER 2

THEORY AND RELATED LITERATURE

The present chapter is devoted to an examination of some theories and research underlying interpersonal attraction. The purpose of this examination was to discern some variables which may account for differences in the social attractiveness of students in their interpersonal relationships with peers.

Similarity and Interpersonal Attraction

Interpersonal attraction is, intuitively, of a multi-determinant nature. Previous research, for example, has indicated that attraction responses may vary as a function of such variables as propinquity (e.g., Byrne & Buehler, 1955; Festinger, Schacter and Back, 1950), the reinforcing properties of the situation (e.g., Lott & Lott, 1960), attitude similarity-dissimilarity (e.g., Byrne & Nelson, 1965; Newcomb, 1956), perceived similarity (e.g., Levinger & Breedlove, 1966; Lundy, 1958), the temporal length of the relationship (e.g. Morton, 1960), characteristics like boastfulness and self-depreciation (Pepitone, 1964), and the respective status of each individual (e.g., Jones, 1964).

An extensive amount of research has indicated that similarity between people on such dimensions as race (Byrne & Wong, 1962), religious background (Goodnow & Tagirui, 1952), socioeconomic background (Burgess & Wallin, 1943), intelligence (Richardson, 1939), and beliefs (Bryne, 1961; Rokeach, 1960; Stein, Hardyck and Smith, 1965) is related to interpersonal attraction. Further, studies have demonstrated that

people who like each other tend to perceive one another as relatively similar on various dimensions (Fiedler, Warrington and Blaisdell, 1952; Kogan & Tagirui, 1958), and conversely, people who are disliked are perceived as less similar (Stein, et al., 1965).

A number of theoretical rationales have been proposed to account for the association between similarity and attraction. Thus similarity, or perceived similarity, has been explained as a factor leading to friendship because it increases understanding and hence aids communication (Runkel, 1956): evidence to support this has been provided by Triandis (1959) and Menger (1969).

According to 'cognitive balance theory' (Heider, 1958) separate entities which are similar tend to be perceived as belonging together (having a unit relationship). Hence positive unit formation (e.g., perceived similarity) should induce a harmonious sentiment relationship (i.e., liking). On the other hand, the process should operate in reverse, such that, liking for another should lead to the perception that a harmonious unit relationship exists (i.e., that the liked other is similar to oneself). Both alternatives have received empirical support.

Studies (e.g., Byrne & Blaylock, 1963) which have included measures of both the amount of perceived similarity and actual similarity of attitudes, existing between persons, have tended to support the assumption that individuals who like one another perceive themselves as similar. These findings, however, also revealed that persons often over-estimate the extent to which their friends share their attitudes.

More substantiative evidence for the proposition that 'liking' leads to the perception of similarity is obtained from studies in which feelings of attraction have been elicited on a basis other than attitudinal similarity, and in which actual interaction between pairs had not occurred. Byrne and Wong (1962), for example, examined subjects who possessed varying degrees of prejudice toward Negroes. The authors findings revealed that prejudiced subjects assumed they would agree with a Negro stranger less often than they would agree with a white stranger. Unprejudiced subjects, however, assumed that the Negro stranger and the white stranger were equally likely to share their attitudes. Byrne and Wong (1962) concluded that the subjects liking (for Negroes) influenced their perception of how similar or dissimilar anothers attitudes were likely to be to their own.

The second proposition, that actual attribute similarity will result in interpersonal attraction, has also received a considerable amount of investigation. Newcomb (1961), for example, studied the development of friendships among a group of male students, at the University of Michigan. All subjects were strangers when they arrived at the dormitory they had been assigned to share. On the basis of attitudinal data gathered at the outset, Newcomb observed that interpersonal attraction was predictable from actual attitudinal agreement, given adequate opportunity for individuals to become familiar with each others opinions.

Izard (1960, 1963) tested the hypothesis that persons who liked each other would be significantly more similar, in personality

characteristics, than they would be to persons whom they disliked. The Edward Personal Preference Schedule was administered to an entire freshman class upon entering college. Six months later female subjects in the group were given a sociometric form requiring them to list the three girls they most liked in their class, and three girls they least liked. Izard found that the personality profiles obtained, prior-to-acquaintance, were significantly more similar for subjects and their most liked classmates, than for subjects and their least liked classmates.

The literature reviewed, then, strongly suggests that social desirability is prompted by the mutual identification of shared attributes, between people. And further, interpersonal attraction may be based upon 'actual' similarity of shared attributes as well as 'perceived' similarity. The educational setting most certainly constitutes an important social milieu in which early identification of similarity-dissimilarity with respect to a host of attributes (e.g., scholastic ability, interests, athletic ability, etc.), between oneself and others, becomes readily apparent. In fact, interpersonal relationships with respect to attribute similarity-dissimilarity (e.g., ability grouping) are often determined by the educational institution, irrespective of individual preference. Thus social attractiveness may be sanctioned not only by one's peers, but also by the institution. In the latter regard, Byrne (1969) proposed from the standpoint of reinforcement theory, that people are attracted to those who can mediate rewards for them.

In contrast to real-life interactions, simulated laboratory

studies in which an individual responds to test data of a hypothetical stranger, have produced highly consistent results for the association of similarity and interpersonal attraction. In fact, the apparent stability of this relationship prompted Byrne and Clore (1966) to postulate a 'law of attraction' - a positive linear function between similarity and attraction, where similarity is defined on the basis of the perception of shared attributes.

According to some social psychologists, the similarity-attraction paradigm is mediated by motivational properties representing a learned drive to be logical, or a need to experience in integrated and meaningful world (Byrne & Clore, 1967; Byrne & Nelson, 1965). This motive is reinforced by the consensual validation of other persons, and frustrated by consensual invalidation (Byrne & Griffitt, 1969). More specifically, Byrne (1961) proposed that,

any time that another person offers us validation by indicating that his percepts and concepts are congruent with ours, it constitutes a rewarding interaction and, hence, one element in forming a positive relationship. Any time another person indicates dissimilarity between our two notions, it constitutes a negative relationship. Disagreement raises the unpleasant possibility that we are to some degree stupid, uninformed, immoral, or insane (p. 173, 1961).

Byrne and Clore (1967) argue that while this motivational construct serves to explain why organisms avoid the monotonous, repetitious, and familiar in order to seek stimulation, the same motive also accounts for a negative response to stimuli which lie further along the continuum of unfamiliarity, unpredictability, and unexpectedness. What the authors suggest, then, is that persons prefer stimuli which lie at

an optimal point between familiar-simple and unfamiliar-complex; a rationale also supported by other psychologists (e.g. Hebb, 1949). The implication, with respect to the present investigation, is that one's social attractiveness is enhanced not only by the proportion of characteristics shared in common with other students, but such characteristics are more likely to represent the norm for the group.

Similarly Festinger (1954), in his theory of social comparison processes, maintained that people learn quite early in life that holding incorrect opinions and beliefs can be punishing, or even fatal, in many situations. Hence people acquire a drive to evaluate the correctness of their opinions and beliefs. The author further hypothesized that, "To the extent that objective non-social means are not available people evaluate their opinions and abilities by comparison, respectively, with the opinions and abilities of others" (p. 118, 1954). Festinger (1954) also proposed that "a person will be less attracted to situations where others are very divergent from him than to situations where others are close to him for both abilities and opinions" (p. 123, 1954). The similarity-attraction paradigm has received support not only with regard to opinions (Byrne & Nelson, 1965) and abilities (Zander & Hevelin, 1960), but also with respect to emotional states (Zimbardo & Formica, 1963), self-concept (Griffitt, 1966), personality-traits (Byrne, Griffitt and Stefaniak, 1967), and vocational interests (Hogan, Hall and Blank, 1972).

Dissimilarity and Interpersonal Attraction

While the similarity-attraction relationship has received

relatively consistent support, with respect to a diversity of attributes, many social psychologists find the paradigm inadequate in accounting for all motives which could conceivably underlie interpersonal attraction. Deutsch and Krauss (1965), for example, express dissatisfaction with the similarity-attraction model due to the implication that all interpersonal relationships can be reduced to a drive for homogeneity of shared characteristics. The authors contend that the "assumption of some sort of derived need for social uniformity or homogeneity runs counter to a good deal of evidence that suggests that people frequently seek out variety, novelty, and difference in their social encounters" (p. 67, 1965). Deutsch and Krauss further maintain that "behavior that seeks variety, exploratory behavior. . .are just as much a part of the process of getting to know oneself and one's environment as is social comparison with others who are similar" (p. 67, 1965). This rationale is reflected in certain 'needs' theories proposed to explain interpersonal attraction.

Winch's (1952) 'need-complementarity' theory, for example, suggests that individuals choose mates (and friends) from among those who are most likely to provide the person with maximum need-gratification. Studies (e.g., Bowerman & Day, 1956) in real-life relationships, however, have not tended to contribute support for Winch's theory. In fact, Banta and Hetherington (1963) found a general preference in mate selection for persons with similar rather than complementary needs. Yet, in contrast to real-life situations, laboratory studies of dyads have supported both the complementary and

similarity hypotheses (Boylan, 1968; Swensen & Nelson, 1967).

A theory similar to the need-complementarity hypothesis (Winch, 1952), is the 'need-completion' principle suggested by Cattell and Nesselroade (1967). According to this rationale, interpersonal attraction may be directed by

...a desire to possess characteristics (by sharing them in the possessed partner) which are felt by the individual to be necessary to his self-concept, or to his or her social and general life adjustment. . . . For example, a socially awkward person might especially value a partner who is socially adroit and poised (p. 351, 1967).

Essentially, the need-completion principle maintains that every person tends to seek in a partner much the same set of desirables, - good looks, intelligence, emotional stability, etc., but more so to the extent that he or she lacks them.

While Cattell and Nesselroade (1967) found little evidence to support the completion principle in an examination of the personality responses of stably and unstably married couples, some validation has been obtained by studies in which individuals were asked to describe their friends (Lundy, Katkovsky, Cromwell and Shoemaker, 1955). Beier, Rossi and Garfield (1961) had subjects complete the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory under three rating conditions. First, the subjects filled out the MMPI as they normally would. Secondly, the subjects filled out the MMPI as they thought their best friends would answer the items. And finally, they completed the MMPI as they thought their most disliked acquaintances would answer the inventory. Beier, et al., (1961) hypothesized that individuals would, (1) project more of their own personal characteristics on friends than

on those they disliked, (2) project more socially approved characteristics on friends than they attributed to themselves, and (3) project more socially disapproved characteristics on disliked persons than they attributed to themselves. The results confirmed all three predictions. Subjects tended to assume that their friends were psychologically stronger and better adjusted than they were themselves. Conversely, subjects tended to perceive those they disliked as much more psychologically maladjusted than the subjects were.

Interestingly, Walster and Walster (1963) hypothesized that individuals would choose to interact with dissimilar others if it were not for a basic fear that they would not be as well accepted by dissimilar persons as they are by similar individuals. The authors maintain that when people are very different from oneself, their social standards are unclear, hence one is likely to be afraid that his behavior will be unacceptable if he is not sure how he is to behave, or what he is supposed to believe. In retrospect, this latter assumption is reminiscent of the Byrne and Clore (1967) hypothesis which suggests that people are negatively disposed to stimuli characterized by unfamiliarity, unpredictability, and unexpectedness.

Walster and Walster (1963) proposed that if students were confident that those they came in contact with would like them, they would be unusually anxious to associate with dissimilar strangers. However, it was further hypothesized that when it was especially important to be liked, or when one is unsure of his likability, he will prefer to associate with similar people. To investigate these hypotheses, the authors

told the subjects they could participate in any one of five groups. Some groups consisted of people very similar to the subject (i.e., fellow students in introductory psychology). The other groups consisted of dissimilar persons (i.e., factory workers, psychologists). Subjects were also led to have different expectations as to how members of all groups would probably react to them. Walster and Walster found that if students were told it was important to talk with persons who would like them, they more often chose to interact with similar than dissimilar people. Students, however, who had been assured that everyone would find them likable, were much more willing to associate with dissimilar people than were subjects in other conditions. Further, subjects informed that they would probably not be liked by any group members were more inclined to talk with similar people than were control subjects. The authors concluded that the more concerned one is about being liked, the more anxious a person will be to associate with similar people.

The implication that persons who are psychologically (or socially) secure are likely to associate with dissimilar others, has been corroborated by Goldstein and Rosenfeld (1969). Psychological security, in this latter study, was assessed by the Crowne - Marlowe Social Desirability Scale and the Security - Insecurity Inventory. Further, Stalling (1970) proposed that when two persons possess similar low-valued attributes they may be inclined to choose each other in a social, or work, situation since they may have learned to expect more reward and less censure from similar persons than from more attractive

individuals.

To summarize, the review of some literature underlying interpersonal attraction suggests that while some friendship pairs may be characterized by similarity of shared attributes, others may be complementary in nature. The 'needs' theories, however, suggest that interpersonal attraction is constituted on the basis of a deficiency of attributes on the part of one member. Yet, the similarity-attraction paradigm proposes that similarity of attributes is reinforcing, irrespective of the nature of the characteristic. From the standpoint of the present investigation, the review of literature suggests that 'socially preferred' individuals may be inclined to direct their interpersonal attraction responses toward similar others, as a consequence of the positive social reinforcement contingencies operating in their social environment. From the perspective of the complementary-need theories, however, one might predict that 'socially non-preferred' persons may be inclined to direct their attraction responses toward dissimilar persons as a means of enhancing their social esteem. However, there are likely certain characteristics (e.g., physical attributes) which would be minimally enhanced through association with those persons enjoying an abundance of these attributes.

More recently, some research has been directed toward the examination of variables which may interact with the similarity-attraction model (e.g., Hendrick & Brown, 1971). Specifically, attention has focused on the relative consistency of the similarity dimension to act in the capacity of a positive reinforcer. According to Byrne's (1969)

reinforcement theory, similarity mediates attraction because it possesses reward qualities, and not because of any inherent characteristics per se. Novak and Lerner (1968) contend, however, that if the most salient motives in a situation require facilitation of communication, or support for one's values and beliefs, then the perception of similarity will probably lead to a positive evaluation. On the other hand, if the perception of similarity occurs in a context in which the salient motives make similarity relatively threatening and non-rewarding, individuals may be disposed toward dissimilar persons. The authors propose, for example, that people have a strong need to believe that they have control over their fate hence any objective evidence that fate can be capricious and beyond one's efforts can be most threatening; particularly in situations where an individual is confronted with a person who has been impaired (e.g., physical, intellectual or emotional handicap) through no apparent fault of his own.

To investigate this assumption, Novak and Lerner (1968) had subjects evaluate a partner presented as either similar or dissimilar to themselves, and as being normal or emotionally maladjusted. The authors observed that when the partner was presented as normal and similar, subjects expressed a greater desire to interact with a similar, rather than a dissimilar person. When, however, the partner was presented as similar but maladjusted, subjects showed a greater inclination to interact with a dissimilar individual. Interestingly, the authors also found that the dissimilar partner was rated as less adjusted, on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale, than was the similar partner; even in

the normal conditions where no mention was made of the partner's psychological stability. This latter finding has also been reported in previous studies (e.g., Beiri, Rossi and Garfield, 1961; Byrne, 1961).

While previous research (Reagor and Clore, 1970; Zander and Havelin, 1960) had suggested that the similarity-attraction paradigm also generalized to one's task performance, or abilities, Senn (1971) argued that the model failed to take account of situations involving individual differences in task performance. Thus, in a study designed to test the effect of task performance similarity-dissimilarity on interpersonal attraction, Senn found a linear relationship between similarity and attraction when similarly performing subjects were successful at solving the task. When, however, similarly performing subjects were unsuccessful at the task they were found to be significantly less attracted to their partner than had been similar, successful, partners. The author concluded that the similarity-attraction paradigm breaks down under circumstances involving negatively evaluated behaviors. The implications for the present study are most apparent, considering the importance which the educational institution places upon scholastic achievement as a criterion of successful personal adjustment. One aspect of the present investigation, then, was to determine whether differences exist between 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' students with respect to measures of scholastic achievement and general intelligence.

Stalling (1970) argues that while Byrne's (1969) similarity-attraction paradigm has accurately predicted the formation of an

implicit affective response, the reinforcement model has failed to take account of the mediational effect of the evaluative meaning which individuals ascribe to various human characteristics.

While Byrne et al., (1968) acknowledged the effect of evaluative meaning, in the similarity-attraction model, the assumption was made that similar and dissimilar attitude statements have "evaluative (i.e., positive and negative affective) meaning, and hence reinforcement properties" (p. 962, 1968). Stalling (1970) hypothesized, however, that Byrne's (1968) rationale likely pertains only to attitudes, but not to other variables, such as personality traits. Specifically, Stalling proposed that similarity with respect to personality characteristics may not always be reinforcing to a subject since the individual may possess traits that are negatively valued, or lack traits that are positively valued. In such cases, highly similar persons may be less appealing to the subject than individuals somewhat dissimilar.

To investigate this assumption, Stalling (1970) designed a study to assess the relative effectiveness of either evaluative meaning or similarity of personality characteristics to elicit an affective response. Subjects rated personality trait adjectives on their pleasantness (evaluative dimension) and similarity to the subjects own traits (similarity dimension). These two dimensions were used as unconditioned stimuli, with trigrams as conditioned stimuli, in a Staats's conditioning procedure (Staats & Staats, 1957). The author found not only a sizable positive correlation between the similarity and evaluative dimensions, but that it was the evaluative component which elicited the affective

(attraction) response. Stalling concluded that similarity, at least with the respect to personality traits, will not function as a positive reinforcer beyond the extent of it's correlation with evaluative meaning.

Interestingly, in a study designed to determine the mediating effects of the personality variable, extraversion - introversion (Eysenck, 1962), Hendrick and Brown (1971) found that both introverted and extraverted subjects were more attracted toward an extraverted stranger, than an introverted stranger. The authors concluded that the social behaviors associated with the extravert stereotype had greater appeal than did those associated with the introvert stereotype, hence the attraction behaviors of the introverted subjects served to invalidate the assumption of a positive linear relationship between similarity and interpersonal attraction.

Hendrick and Brown (1971) further hypothesized that the positive relationship between similarity and interpersonal attraction obtained in previous research, may be due to a general egocentrism of individuals. More explicitly, the authors suggest that. . . "For most of us, most of the time, our own behaviors and attributes are the best, most proper, and most rewarding . . . It follows that to the extent that others are like us, we are attracted to them" (p. 35, 1971). Hendrick and Brown further hypothesize that . . . "To the extent that our egocentrism is not completely general, exceptions to the similarity-attraction relation should occur" (p. 35, 1971). Interestingly, Mitchell (1970) maintains that one of the factors contributing to both

the 'sociological' and 'psychological' alienation of some adolescents, is egocentrism. Mitchell explains that it is during the adolescent stage that the last remnants of egocentrism are being experienced, reducing the individual's ability to perceive, or understand, from a perspective other than his own.

A review of some literature related to interpersonal attraction suggests, then, that similarity with respect to some attributes (e.g., attitudes, values, etc.,) is rewarding, and hence facilitative of one's social attractiveness. On the other hand, other characteristics may exist such that the salient motives in the situation make similarity a threatening or non-rewarding experience, hence detrimental to one's interpersonal attractiveness. In other words, similarity with regard to some attributes (e.g. personality traits) does not appear to act independently of the evaluative meaning ascribed to the characteristic, in eliciting attraction responses. Further, the evaluative judgements regarding certain attributes may be applied by agents external to the individual, and/or by the individual himself. The present study investigated some external criteria (i.e., scholastic achievement, intelligence, and socioeconomic status) which may constitute evaluative dimensions serving to differentiate between socially preferred and socially non-preferred students.

The assumption was also made, in the review of literature, that due to a general developmental phenomenon (i.e., egocentrism) some adolescents may be limited in their ability to entertain, or comprehend, persons from a perspective other than their own. Thus it would seem

reasonable to propose that an individual's social attractiveness may vary as a function of one's ability to discriminate and comprehend the attributes characterizing other persons. Further, the review of literature suggests that an individual's interpersonal attractiveness may also vary to the extent that the evaluative meanings which an individual ascribes to a variety of attributes or behaviors are relatively similar with those of persons sharing one's social environment. The present study investigated the first assumption by comparing ratings of 'perceived' and 'actual' personality similarity, of socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, with the self-descriptive ratings of their most preferred classmate. The second assumption was investigated by comparing the evaluative meaning which socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, students ascribe to personality traits, with a similar rating provided by their most preferred classmates.

Cognitive Complexity and Interpersonal Attraction

While a considerable amount of research has been devoted to the elucidation of variables which validate the proposed linear relationship between similarity and interpersonal attraction (Byrne & Clore, 1967), little research has concentrated upon characteristics of the perceiver which may act to facilitate, or distort, the perception of characteristics of other persons. For example, Byrne and Wong (1962) found that prejudice was an important factor dictating one's perception of similarity-dissimilarity, hence liking for others. Accordingly, Wright (1965, 1968) argues that it is invalid to assume that an individual

comes to an encounter with no preconceptions about the people he expects to interact with; but rather that he will have a set of preferences, some implicit ideas about how to behave toward other persons, and what behavior to expect in return. Supportive evidence for this latter assumption has been provided by Farnia, Allen, and Saul (1968) and Goffman (1963), who have shown the influence of preconceptions about the interaction upon behavior in that interaction. Similarly, person perception theorists (e.g., Tagiuri, 1958) maintain that the characteristics of the perceiver are a significant variable influencing the process of perceiving, judging, and evaluating others.

It may be recalled from an earlier discussion, that the similarity-attraction paradigm was hypothesized to be mediated by motivational properties representing a drive for validation of one's percepts and concepts, by others (Byrne, 1961). The support of one's perceptions was proposed to satisfy the individual's need to be logical and interpret incoming information correctly (Byrne & Clore, 1967). These authors suggest that this motivational construct was also recognized by Kelly (1955) who assumed that a basic motive of human behavior is its movement in the direction of greater predictability of an individual's interpersonal environment.

According to Kelly's (1955, 1958, 1962) personality theory, each individual possesses a system of personal constructs for perceiving his social world. A person's construct system represents characteristic modes of perceiving people in the individual's environment. Thus an individual is characterized by the way he interprets the

world and by the hypotheses he forms about the replication of events, including interpersonal events. Kelly argues that an individual is not a passive observer of his environment, but actively construes his surroundings. Each individual has his own way of interpreting the world, and it is these peculiar personal constructs that give to each person his individuality.

Recently, Duck and Spencer (1972) have suggested that the theories presented by Kelly (1955) and Byrne (1961) stress the same point of view, - namely that "consensual validation for one's view of the world and of interpersonal events is achieved by associating with those who have similar constructs" (p. 41, 1972). Consequently, the authors investigated the hypothesis that individuals seek others whose construct system is similar to their own. In assessing the degree of similarity that obtains between friends, as compared to nominal pairs, Duck and Spencer evaluated the constructs of individuals at the outset of their interaction before any friendship patterns emerged, and at a later date when friendships had been established. The results of measurements obtained with the Role Construct Repertory Grid Test (Kelly, 1955) indicated that pairs of friends shared significantly more similar personal constructs, than did nominal pairs, even on initial encounters before friendships had occasion to form. The implication for the present study is that socially preferred individuals may possess a more complex personal construct system, for the purpose of comprehending the perceptions of other individuals, than do socially non-preferred persons.

Bieri (1955), a contemporary of Kelly (1955), suggests that since the individual's constructs represent differential perceptions or discriminations of one's environment, the greater the degree of differentiation among constructs the greater will be the interpersonal discriminative ability of the individual. According to Bieri (1955), a system of constructs which differentiates highly among people may be considered 'cognitively complex'. A construct system providing poor differentiation is considered to be 'cognitively simple'. In a study designed to investigate subjects interpersonal predictive accuracy, Bieri (1955) utilized the Role Construct Repertory Test (Kelly, 1955) to measure cognitive complexity-simplicity. The results indicated that the cognitively complex subjects tended to predict accurately, the differences between oneself and others. The tendency, however, to engage in inaccurate projections concerning the similarity between self and others was significantly related to cognitive simplicity. Similarly, Leventhal (1957) found that subjects low in cognitive complexity predicted significantly greater similarity between themselves and others, than did those high in cognitive complexity.

The above studies contribute to the validation of an earlier assumption (Cameron, 1947), suggesting a general tendency of individuals to perceive others as similar to oneself, often on the basis of inaccurate information. Cameron described this behavior as 'assimilative projection', suggesting that . . . "The less practiced a person is in the social techniques of sharing the perspectives of others, the less opportunity he will have of finding out how different from himself

other ordinary people can be" (p. 167, 1947). Thus the individual who has not made fine discriminations among his perceptions of other persons is assumed to have a greater tendency to perceive others as being similar to oneself. Also, from a similar viewpoint, Crockett (1965) proposed a 'frequency of interaction' hypothesis in which cognitive complexity is viewed as varying with the degree to which an individual interacts "frequently and intensively" with stimuli in his environment. In support of this hypothesis, Crockett (1965) cites research in which fraternity members were found to have higher cognitive complexity scores than non-fraternity college students. Also, the personality disposition, extraversion, has been found to be significantly correlated with cognitive complexity (Bieri & Messerly, 1957). Finally, sex differences, reflecting higher complexity scores in females have been observed (Crockett, 1965; Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

To summarize, some personality theorists (e.g., Kelly, 1955; Lewin, 1935) have proposed that the personality characteristics of the individual may be interpreted within a general perceptual or cognitive framework. Further, individuals have been hypothesized to differ in degree of differentiation, or complexity, of cognitive structure such that some persons have a greater capacity to discriminate similarities and differences between themselves, and others. Thus persons who are less cognitively complex appear to be more inclined to perceive similarities between themselves and others, and prone to be inaccurate in these perceptions. From the standpoint of the similarity-attraction paradigm, then, cognitive complexity would appear to be an important

variable which could interact with the similarity dimension in mediating interpersonal attraction. In this latter regard, Stalling (1970) concluded that reward (and hence attraction) may in some cases depend on similarities and in others on differences between people. Finally, the review of some literature, related to 'cognitive complexity', suggests that this variable is a linear function of the degree to which one interacts with persons in his environment. Thus, the assumption may be made that socially preferred individuals may be more cognitively complex than socially non-preferred persons. More specifically, it may be hypothesized that socially preferred individuals possess greater interpersonal discriminative abilities, hence a greater capacity to entertain similarities and differences in their interpersonal relationships, than do socially non-preferred people.

The dimensional view of cognitive complexity (Bieri, 1955) suggests that a major characteristic of cognitive simplicity is the lack of differentiation between the boundaries of self and the external environment. A similar assumption is reflected in a second major theory of conceptual complexity (Harvey, Hunt & Schroder, 1961; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967; Harvey, 1967). This theoretical rationale, however, incorporates an integrative aspect as well as the dimension component of complexity. Specifically, in addition to differentiation (or number of distinct dimensions) in a conceptual structure, complexity is also defined in terms of the structural integration of dimensional units, or the extent to which dimensions of information can be interrelated in different ways in order to generate

new and discrepant perspectives about stimuli (Schoder et al., 1967). According to Harvey et al., (1961) cognitive development is assumed to progress along a continuum of increasing abstractness, or complexity.

Harvey, Hunt and Schroder (1961) propose that persons functioning at the concrete end of the continuum are characterized by a low level of self-other, and other-other discrimination. Further, categorical thinking, rigidity, overgeneralization, intolerance of ambiguity, and consequent reliance upon absolute universal standards (i.e., authority, norms, rules) applied indiscriminately to self and others is also typical of cognitively concrete individuals. At the more abstract level of functioning, however, persons have highly differentiated and integrated cognitive structures permitting increases in self-other and other-other discrimination as well as a set of internal standards to evaluate stimuli, independent of external criteria. Theoretically, then, conceptual complexity is proposed to vary as a function of increased movement, or attraction, toward others (Harvey, Hunt & Schroder, 1961; Schroder, Drive & Streufert, 1967), more accurate perception and understanding of interpersonal stimuli (Bieri, 1955; Bieri, Atkins, Briar, Leamon, Miller and Tripodi, 1966), and less dependence upon external standards in evaluating 'self' and others.

Carr (1965) investigated the role of conceptual complexity with respect to a person's interpersonal discriminative abilities. Utilizing the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (1965) the author found that while abstract subjects were not significantly more differentiated

than concrete functioning subjects, abstract subjects made finer interpersonal discriminations than did concrete subjects. A post-hoc analysis of high-differentiated and low-differentiated subgroups indicated that high-differentiated subjects scored higher on measures of self-other discrimination, than did low-differentiated subjects. Further, while high-differentiated subjects were found to score higher on measures of overall discrimination, other-other discrimination, and self-distinctiveness, these differences were not statistically significant. The present investigation utilized the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970) to determine whether differences, in cognitive complexity, existed between socially preferred and socially non-preferred students.

More recently, Sawatzky and Zingle (1971) conducted a validation study of the theoretical relationship between conceptual systems membership (Harvey, et al., 1961) and dichotomization of judgements of 'self'. The evaluation of 'self' was based on a semantic differential procedure, utilizing a set of bipolar adjectives representing the concept 'the way I see myself'. Dichotomization of judgement (i.e., categorical behavior) was defined as the frequency of usage of the extremities (1s and 7s) on a 7-point scale. The results indicated that the most concretely functioning group was significantly more inclined toward dichotomous judgements (e.g., black and white), than were abstract functioning groups. The authors concluded that evidence had been contributed toward the validation of Harvey's et al., (1961) theory suggesting the inability of poorly differentiated and integrated

structures to make fine discriminations of 'self' based upon internalized, rather than external standards of self evaluation.

It will be recalled, earlier in the review of literature related to interpersonal attraction, that the evaluative meaning which persons ascribe to attributes, is an important variable mediating interpersonal attraction (Hendrick and Brown, 1971; Senn, 1971; Stalling, 1970). More specifically, it has been proposed that some individuals may be more inclined than others to view those attributes which characterize them to be good, and those which do not to be bad (Hendrick and Brown, 1971; Stalling, 1970); hence they may be more prone to demand homogeneity in their interpersonal relationships. Further, conceptual complexity theorists (Harvey, Hunt & Schroder, 1961; Schroder, Drive & Streufert, 1967) suggest that persons disposed to categorical thinking are characterized by poorly differentiated and integrated structures; a feature typical of individuals who experience infrequent and less intensive interaction with stimuli, in their interpersonal environment (Crockett, 1965). The assumption may be made, then, that socially unattractive individuals are more inclined to make dichotomous judgements (e.g., pleasant-unpleasant, good-bad) regarding the attributes used to describe the 'self' and others, than are more socially attractive persons. This assumption was investigated in the present study by comparing the evaluative meaning assigned, by socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, to personality-trait adjectives used to describe 'self' and their most preferred classmate. Also, the frequency of interaction of socially preferred and socially

non-preferred students with their most preferred classmate was investigated as a consequence of the hypothesized relationship between this variable and cognitive complexity, as well as the effect of this variable independent of the similarity and evaluative meaning variables.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of the present investigation was to determine some variables which may account for differences in the social attractiveness of students. In this latter regard, some literature pertaining to interpersonal attraction suggests that similarity (i.e., actual and perceived similarity) of shared attributes is a major factor facilitating attraction responses between individuals (e.g., Byrne, Griffitt & Stefaniak, 1967), provided that the salient motives in the situation make attribute similarity a mutually rewarding circumstance (Hendrick & Brown, 1971). One aspect of the present study, then, was to determine whether (1) actual personality similarity was more characteristic of the interpersonal relationships of socially preferred students, than of socially non-preferred students, (2) socially preferred students are more inclined to perceive similarities between themselves and their preferred classmates, than are socially non-preferred students, (3) socially preferred students are more accurate, than socially non-preferred students, in their perception of similarities and differences between themselves and their preferred classmates, and (4) the evaluative meanings which socially preferred students and their preferred classmates assign to personality characteristics are more similar, than

between socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates.

Recognizing that a host of variables could conceivably be contributing to differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of students, some variables of relevance to the educational setting, including - academic achievement, intelligence, and socioeconomic status were also investigated in the course of this study. These variables were regarded, by the author, as constituting some additional criteria operating in the students' social environment which may act to arbitrate differences in the social attractiveness between students. Some ancillary hypotheses were proposed predicting greater similarity between socially preferred students, according to these variables, than between socially non-preferred students.

Finally, the review of some theoretical rationales related to cognitive complexity variables (e.g., Kelly, 1955; Bieri, 1955) suggests that one's ability to accurately perceive similarities and differences between 'self' and others is dependent on two factors. Firstly, interpersonal discriminative ability is dependent upon the number of unique dimensions (i.e., differentiation of cognitive structure) one uses to interpret interpersonal stimuli. And secondly, one's ability to perceive similarities and differences between 'self' and others is dependent upon the degree of discrimination (i.e., fineness of categorization) which each unique dimension provides the individual in interpreting interpersonal stimuli. From the standpoint of the cognitive complexity variables, then, the present investigation was designed to determine whether socially preferred students manifest greater differentiation

of constructs, in evaluating their interpersonal environment, than do socially non-preferred students. Also, the subjects were compared to determine whether the structure of interpersonal constructs, characteristic of socially preferred students, permits greater interpersonal discrimination between 'self' and others, than does the cognitive structure of socially non-preferred students.

Some theorists (Crockett, 1965) maintain that cognitive complexity is a function of the frequency and intensity of interpersonal interaction. Thus subjects were compared to determine, (1) whether socially preferred students do interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, than do socially non-preferred students, (2) the relationship between frequency of interaction and cognitive complexity, as applied to socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, and (3) the effect of frequent interaction independent of the similarity and evaluative meaning variables.

Schroder, Drive and Streufert (1967) propose that one factor characteristic of less cognitively complex individuals is the lack of self-other discrimination, and a greater dependence on external criteria in the evaluation of appropriate human behavior. The implication, then, is that such individuals are more prone to make categorical judgements (e.g., black and white) regarding acceptable behavior, and to anticipate that others behave similar to oneself. Subjects were compared, then, to determine whether socially preferred students were less inclined, than socially non-preferred students, to make categorical judgements (i.e., use of extreme positive and negative semantic

differential ratings) regarding the evaluative meaning of personality traits in their self-descriptions, and their descriptions of preferred classmates, with respect to a random selection of personality-trait adjectives.

Hypotheses

The intention of the following section of this chapter was to make explicit some hypotheses which have been suggested, in the review of literature related to interpersonal attraction and cognitive complexity variables, as accounting for differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred and socially non-preferred students. These hypotheses have been grouped on the basis of the specific theoretical relationship being investigated. The first six hypotheses are central to the similarity-attraction paradigm proposed to mediate interpersonal attraction.

Hypothesis 1 Socially preferred students will be more similar to their preferred classmates, in personality traits (i.e., actual similarity), than will be socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates.

Hypothesis 2 Socially preferred students will perceive greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than will socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 3 A greater relationship will exist between the evaluative meanings which socially preferred students and their preferred classmates ascribe to personality traits, than between the evaluative meanings of socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates.

Hypothesis 4 Socially preferred students will be found to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, than will socially non-preferred students.

The next three hypotheses are also based upon the similarity-attraction paradigm as well as previous research which has suggested that disliked students function at lower levels of academic ability (Fox, Luszki & Schmuck, 1966), intelligence (Torrance, 1963), and may also differ in level of socioeconomic background (Lippitt & Gold, 1959; Pope, 1953), compared to socially preferred students.

Hypothesis 5 Socially preferred students will attain a higher level of academic achievement, and be more similar to one another in academic ability, than will socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 6 Socially preferred students will be characterized by greater similarity and a higher level of Verbal intelligence, as compared to socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 7 Socially preferred students will be characterized by greater similarity and a higher level of socioeconomic status, as compared to socially non-preferred students.

The following hypotheses are subsumed by the general hypothesis that persons differing in level of cognitive complexity (i.e., differentiation and discrimination) will also differ in tendency to perceive similarities and differences between themselves and others.

Hypothesis 8 Socially preferred students will manifest a greater number of independent constructs (i.e., differentiation) for interpreting interpersonal stimuli, than will socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 9 The personal constructs of socially preferred students will facilitate finer self-other discriminations, than will the personal constructs of socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 10 The personal constructs of socially preferred students will permit finer discriminations between other persons (excluding self), than will the personal constructs of socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 11 Socially preferred students will perceive greater self-distinctiveness, in discriminating similarities and differences between themselves and others, than will socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 12 Socially preferred students will be more accurate in their perceptions of the personality traits characterizing their preferred classmates, than will socially non-preferred students.

Hypothesis 13 Socially preferred students will be less inclined toward making extreme categorical judgements (i.e., good-bad) in rating the evaluative meaning, themselves, and their preferred classmates according to personality traits, than will socially non-preferred students.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Definitions

Socially Preferred Student - a student receiving a ratio of three positive to one negative evaluation, by classmates, as measured by a sociometric instrument (see Appendix A).

Socially Non-Preferred Student - a student receiving a ratio of three negative to one positive evaluation, by classmates, as measured by a sociometric instrument (see Appendix A).

Actual Similarity - the relationship between a subject's self-descriptive rating, and the subject's 'most preferred classmate's' self-descriptive rating of a random selection of personality-trait adjectives, as measured by two 7-point scales (see Appendix B).

Perceived Similarity - the relationship between a subject's self-descriptive rating, and the subject's rating of his 'most preferred classmate on a random selection of personality-trait adjectives, as measured by two 7-point scales (see Appendix B).

Evaluative Meaning - a student's rating of the degree of 'pleasantness' or 'unpleasantness' of a personality-trait adjective, as measured by a 7-point scale (see Appendix B).

Rating Accuracy - the relationship between a subject's rating of his 'most preferred classmate and the subject's 'most preferred classmate's self-descriptive rating of a random selection of personality-trait adjectives, as measured by two 7-point scales (see Appendix B).

Categorical Judgements - the subject's use of extreme categories (1's and 7's) in rating the evaluative meaning of a personality-trait adjective, the self-descriptive rating of a personality-trait adjective, and the subject's rating of his 'most preferred classmate' on a random selection of personality-trait adjectives, as measured by three 7-point scales (see Appendix B).

Differentiation - the number of unique, independent, characteristics (along with their polar opposite constitutes a dimension) which an individual conceptualizes as three 'liked' and three 'disliked' characteristics of 'self', as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970, see Appendix C).

Discrimination - the number of categories which each independent (i.e., differentiated) dimension provides the individual in perceiving similarities and differences between 'self' and others, as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970, see Appendix C). This operational definition referred to a measure of 'over-all discrimination'.

(a) Self-other discrimination - the number of others categorized as different from 'self' on each independent dimension, as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970).

(b) Self-distinctiveness - the number of times that an individual places himself in a separate category on each independent dimension, as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970).

(c) Other-other discrimination - the number of categories

(excluding self) which the individual uses to distinguish between 'others', along each independent dimension, as measured by the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970).

Subjects

Thirty socially preferred (15 males and 15 females) and 29 socially non-preferred (15 males and 14 females) students, with chronological age within the range of fifteen to seventeen years, participated in this descriptive study. The subjects were selected from a total of 186 Grade eleven students, from schools, within the Edmonton Separate School system.

Socially preferred subjects were defined as those receiving a ratio of at least three positive choices, to one negative choice, by their classmates, as measured by a sociometric instrument. Conversely, socially non-preferred subjects were defined as those receiving a ratio of at least three negative choices, to one positive choice, as measured by a sociometric instrument. The three-to-one ratio was determined as a result of a frequency distribution analysis of positive and negative choices received by the 186 students assessed with the sociometric instrument. Examinations of the modal distributions of positive and negative choices revealed that while the majority of students received either one positive or one negative choice, the probabilities of obtaining three or more positive, or negative, choices was significantly more difficult (see Appendix A).

Potential subjects who had not been a registered student at the school, for at least one year, were not included in the sample. The

study was confined to small student-populated high schools, within the Edmonton Separate School system, which were also characterized by a restricted range of curricula, as compared to the larger high schools. These latter guidelines were established as a means of increasing the probability that students had adequate opportunities to familiarize themselves with the majority of grade eleven students, in their school, and hence permit a relatively valid basis for obtaining sociometric ratings.

Instrumentation

(1) Sociometric Instrument:

All grade eleven students, at each school in which the study was conducted, were provided with a questionnaire (see Appendix A) in which they were asked to list the names of three grade eleven students, at this school, whom they most preferred, and three students they least preferred. The sociometric ratings of all grade eleven students, in each school were then subjected to a grid-analysis (see Appendix A), designed to tally all the positive and negative choices received by each student. Subjects were then selected for the sample on the basis of the operational definitions of 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' students, given earlier in this chapter.

(2) Socialization Questionnaire:

Each Grade eleven student was asked to select one of the three students listed as most preferred, in connection with the sociometric instrument, as their 'most preferred classmate'. A questionnaire was then used to obtain each student's rating of 'frequency of interaction'

with their 'most preferred classmate' both at school and outside the school setting. In each situation, the student was asked to indicate 'frequency of interaction' according to the following categories: 'All the time', 'Most of the time', 'Very Seldom', 'Never'. This questionnaire was completed immediately upon completion of the Sociometric instrument (see Appendix A).

(3) Personality-trait Index:

A personality-trait test booklet was compiled consisting of a random selection of 60 adjectives from Anderson's (1968) list of 555 personality-trait adjectives. The adjectives comprising Anderson's list have been ordered with respect to decreasing degrees of "likableness", with scores ranging from 1 to 555. Rank-order correlations between male and female college students at a different college setting, and present ratings, were .96 and .97 respectively. Also, a within-subject reliability analysis of 20 adjectives chosen by stratified sampling procedures, with present ratings, produced a product-moment r of .992.

In developing the personality-trait index the list of 555 personality-trait adjectives were divided into thirds. By selecting every ninth adjective from the list, 20 adjectives were selected from the 'low-likable, from the medium-likable, and from the high-likable' thirds of the list, respectively, to comprise a total of 60 adjectives. The 60 adjectives were then randomly assigned to pages in a booklet (see Appendix B). Beneath each personality-trait adjective were three 7-point scales. These scales represented, respectively, the evaluative

meaning (pleasantness-unpleasantness) scale, the self-descriptive (like me-unlike me) scale, and the 'most preferred classmate' (like preferred classmate-unlike preferred classmate) scale. The choice of a 7-point scale was based upon the research evidence of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaun (1957) who found after examining scales composed of various discriminative intervals that with seven alternatives all of them tend to be used with roughly, if not exactly, equal frequencies. Both the subject and the subject's 'most preferred classmate' completed the Personality Trait Index which required the individual to rate each adjective according to, (1) the degree to which they felt that the personality trait was a pleasant-unpleasant characteristic, (2) the degree to which they felt that the personality trait was descriptive of themselves, and (3) the degree to which they felt that the personality trait was descriptive of their 'most preferred classmate'. Measures of the reliability of this instrument have not been obtained. General instructions were provided for the students on the cover sheet of the booklet.

(4) Interpersonal Discrimination Test (IDT)

The IDT (Carr, 1970) is designed to measure a person's interpersonal discriminative abilities. The instrument assesses an individual's interpersonal discriminative ability with respect to 'differentiation', or the number of independent dimensions (i.e. bipolar traits) which the individual uses to interpret interpersonal stimuli; and the degree of interpersonal 'discrimination', or the number of categories each independent dimension affords the individual, in discerning

similarities and differences between 'self' and others. Besides a measure of differentiation, the IDT provides four measures of discrimination, including - over-all discrimination, self-other discrimination, other-other discrimination, and self-distinctiveness. Test re-test reliability coefficients for the IDT, over one day, range from .82 to .84. After two months, reliability coefficients, on a sample of 25 subjects, ranged from .58 to .65.

(5) Intellectual Ability

The results of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test were obtained for each subject, from the Cumulative records, at each subject's school. This intelligence test had been administered to the subjects at the beginning of the ninth grade, hence the scores were not regarded as being a reliable indice of the subjects' present level of intellectual functioning. In the author's opinion, however, a measure of intellectual ability, taken at an earlier point in the course of developing interpersonal relationships among students, may provide an appropriate criterion of the effect of this variable in contributing to an individual's interpersonal attractiveness. More specifically, it would seem reasonable to assume that interpersonal 'polarizations' of students into 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' status groupings occurred over a period of time as students became familiar with each other. In fact, school personnel (personal communication) revealed that the student population, from which the sample was drawn, had been together since the seventh grade. Thus, obtaining a measure of intellectual ability, at the ninth grade, appeared to provide a

relatively optimal period to obtain an indice of this ability. The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test yields both Non-verbal and Verbal intelligence quotients. The Verbal intelligence quotient was used in this investigation since interest was in the possible effect which one's ability for verbal expression, and comprehension, may have in determining one's interpersonal attractiveness. Test reliability (i.e., alternate forms) of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test has been found to range from 0.76 to 0.90. Concurrent validity, based on correlations with reading and arithmetic achievement tests, ranged from 0.76 to .87. And, concurrent validity, based upon a correlation with the Stanford Binet, was found to be 0.70. A t-test analysis, and one-way analysis of variance, were the statistics used to determine whether differences existed between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects with respect to Verbal intelligence.

(6) Scholastic Achievement

The measures of scholastic achievement were based on the subjects' final mean grade-point standings, in grade 10. An examination of the grade 10 programs of study, however, revealed only two academic courses for which all subjects had obtained credit, - English and Social Studies. The author made use of teacher-assigned grades, for these two courses, on the assumption that should scholastic ability be an important criterion of interpersonal attraction, the subject's academic competence would likely be most readily known, to peers, on the basis of teacher evaluations. A t-test analysis, and one-way analysis of variance, were the statistical measures used to determine whether

differences existed between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects with regard to scholastic achievement.

(7) Socioeconomic Status

The Blishen Scale (Blishen, 1958) was used to determine whether differences existed in the socioeconomic status between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects according to the occupation of the working parent. The scale ranks occupations on the basis of income and years of schooling. The scale is based on occupations peculiar to Canadian society, and was constructed on the basis of occupational information obtained from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, in 1956. A measure of concurrent validity, based on rank correlations with a previous scale (Tuckman, 1947) of Canadian occupations, was found to be 0.91. Also, measures of the concurrent validity of the Blishen Scale have been obtained by computing rank correlations between this scale, and occupational prestige scales of other countries. The rank correlations between this scale and ratings of occupational prestige of other countries were: United States, 0.94; Germany, 0.74; Great Britain, 0.85; and New Zealand, 0.89. A t-test analysis, and one-way analysis of variance, were the statistics used to assess group differences.

Calculation of Variables and Statistical Treatment

(1) Actual Similarity: A measure of 'actual similarity' of personality traits, between subjects and their 'most preferred' classmates, was obtained by comparing their self-descriptive ratings, on the 7-point scales, for each personality trait adjective in the Personality

Trait Index. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was the statistic used to compute the measure of 'actual similarity'.

(2) Perceived Similarity: A measure of 'perceived similarity' of personality traits, between subjects and their 'most preferred' classmates, was obtained by comparing the subject's self-descriptive rating and the subject's rating of 'most preferred' classmate, on the 7-point scales for each personality-trait adjective in the Personality Trait Index. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was the statistic used to compute the measure of 'perceived similarity'.

(3) Evaluative Meaning: A measure of the evaluative meanings which subjects and their 'most preferred' classmates ascribe to personality traits was obtained by comparing the ratings of subject and their 'most preferred' classmate, on the 7-point scales, for each personality-trait adjective in the Personality Trait Index. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was the statistic used to determine the relationship between subject's and 'most preferred' classmate's evaluative meanings.

(4) Rating Accuracy: A measure of the rating accuracy of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects was obtained by comparing the subject's rating of 'most preferred' classmate and the 'most preferred' classmate's self-descriptive rating (like me - unlike me), on the 7-point scales, for each personality-trait adjective in the Personality Trait Index. A Pearson r correlation coefficient was the statistic used to determine the subjects' 'rating accuracy'.

(5) Categorical Judgements: The use of extreme categories, by

socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, in rating the evaluative meaning scale, the self-descriptive scale, and the 'most preferred' classmate scale, was obtained by counting the frequency of 1's and 7's used by the subjects, for each personality-trait adjective in the Personality-Trait Index. A t-test statistic was used to determine whether differences exist between groups in the use of extreme categories.

(6) Differentiation: A measure of 'differentiation' was obtained, first, by having each subject list three 'liked' characteristics of 'self', and three 'unliked' characteristics of 'self'. Subjects were then asked to write the polar opposites of each of these six characteristics. Each characteristic, and the polar opposite constituted a dimension. The subject was then required to rate 'self' and six others (see Appendix C) with respect to similarities and differences according to the six dimensions. The measure of 'differentiation' constitutes the number of unique, or independent dimensions generated by the subject. This measure is obtained excluding dimensions characterized by both 'objective' and 'semantic' similarity. Objective similarity is scored when an identical ordering of the seven persons (i.e., the 'self' and six other persons) is given for two or more dimensions. Semantic similarity is scored when the bipolar characteristics, representing a dimension, are repeated verbatim. The number of independent dimensions (maximum of 6), then, constitutes the subject's 'differentiation' score. A t-test analysis was the statistic used to determine whether differences

exist between socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, with respect to 'differentiation'.

(7) Overall Discrimination: A measure of overall discrimination refers to the mean number of categories which the subject uses to separate 'self' and others, on each independent dimension. The score is obtained by counting the number of divisions (i.e., categories) which the subjects make in each cell between the bipolar characteristics (see Appendix C). A t-test analysis was used to determine whether differences exist between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, with respect to this variable.

(8) Self-other Discrimination: A measure of self-other discrimination was derived by determining the mean number of others which the subject placed in a cell (i.e., category) different from 'self', on each independent dimension. A t-test analysis was used to determine whether differences exist between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, with respect to this variable.

(9) Other-other Discrimination: A measure of other-other discrimination was obtained by determining the mean number of divisions made between others (excluding self), by the subject, for each independent dimension. A t-test analysis was the statistic used to determine whether differences exist between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, with respect to this variable.

(10) Self-distinctiveness: A measure of self-distinctiveness

was obtained by determining the mean number of times that a subject placed himself in a separate category, from others, on each independent dimension. Scores could range from 0.00 to 1.00. A t-test analysis was used to determine whether differences exist between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, with respect to this variable.

Pilot Study

The Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970) was subjected to a pilot study prior to the initiation of the present investigation. Previous reliability measures with this instrument were obtained from a college-student population. Thus a 14 day test-retest reliability study was conducted to determine the consistency and relative difficulty experienced by high school students in responding to this instrument. A sample of 23 grade eleven students participated in the pilot study. The Interpersonal Discrimination Test consists of a measure of differentiation, overall discrimination, self-other discrimination, other-other discrimination, and self-distinctiveness. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were found to range from 0.41 to 0.57. The reliability of the instrument is low and likely reflects the fact that students were free to alter "source" persons as well as conceptual dimensions from test to retest.

Procedure

The administration of all instruments required the scheduling of two independent testing periods. During the first testing session all

grade 11 students who were present at that time received the Sociometric instrument, the Socialization Questionnaire, and the Personality Trait Index. For convenience, all three instruments were included in one booklet. The study was conducted in two high schools in the Edmonton Separate School system. At one high school space permitted testing to be conducted in one large group, while at the second school space limitations required that testing be conducted with three smaller groups.

Following the first testing period, sociometric choices were subjected to a 'grid-analysis' (see Appendix A). A frequency distribution of positive and negative choices was computed for all grade 11 students, at the high school where the study was initiated. The criterion for 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' students was then established, prior to initiating testing in the second high school (see Appendix A). Each subject's Personality Trait Index was matched with that of their 'most preferred' classmates. Students meeting the criteria of either 'socially preferred' or 'socially non-preferred' subject, but had not been present at the first testing session, were later asked to complete the test booklet. Further, students who had been selected by subjects as their 'most preferred' classmate, but had been absent during the first testing period, were also asked to complete the test booklet.

A second testing session was then conducted, at which time a sample of 30 'socially preferred' (15 males and 15 females) and 29 'socially non-preferred' (15 males and 14 females) subjects received

the Interpersonal Discrimination Test. Testing was conducted with a number of small groups in order to accommodate the regular instructional time periods, and avoid the removal of more than two subjects from any particular classroom, at any one time.

Information regarding the subject's intellectual ability (Verbal intelligence), scholastic achievement (English 10 and Social Studies 10), and Socioeconomic Status (based on working parent's occupation) was obtained from the subject's Cumulative record following the second testing period.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that socially preferred students would be more similar to their preferred classmates in personality characteristics (i.e., actual similarity), than would be socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates. This hypothesis was not supported. The results of a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis revealed no significant relationship existing between the self-descriptive ratings of socially preferred subjects and those of their preferred classmates, according to personality traits. However, a statistically significant correlation was found ($r = 0.46$, $df = 28$, $p = 0.01$)¹ between the self-descriptive ratings of socially non-preferred subjects and those of their preferred classmates.

Further correlation analyses, according to sex membership, indicated that while a trend toward actual personality similarity was evident between the self-descriptive rating's of socially non-preferred females, and their preferred classmates, the correlation ($r = 0.45$, $df = 13$, $p = .10$)² was not statistically significant. No significant relationship was found between the self-descriptive rating's of

¹Critical r (.05), $df = 28$, = 0.306 (one-tailed).

²Critical r (.05), $df = 13$, = 0.441 (one-tailed).

socially preferred females and their preferred classmates. Similarly, no significant correlations were found between the self-descriptive ratings of socially preferred males, nor socially non-preferred males, and their preferred classmates with respect to personality traits. Thus the trend toward actual personality similarity, between socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates is essentially responsible for the statistically significant correlation found between the socially non-preferred group, and their preferred classmates, with respect to personality traits.

Hypothesis 2

According to hypothesis 2, it was predicted that socially preferred students would perceive greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than would socially non-preferred students. This hypothesis was supported. The results of a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis indicated a significant correlation ($r = 0.91$, $df = 29$, $p < .001$)³ between the self-descriptive ratings of personality traits by socially preferred subjects, and the subjects' rating of their preferred classmates according to the personality traits. A statistically significant correlation ($r = 0.36$, $df = 28$, $p = .05$) was also found between the self-descriptive ratings of socially non-preferred subjects, and the subjects' rating of their preferred classmates, with respect to personality characteristics. A Fisher's z_r transformation (Ferguson, 1959)

³Critical r (.05), $df = 29$, = 0.301 (one-tailed).

revealed that the correlation coefficient obtained for the socially preferred subjects, with respect to the variable of perceived similarity, was significantly greater than the coefficient found for the socially non-preferred subjects ($z = 4.05, p < 0.01$).

Additional correlation analyses, according to sex membership, revealed statistically significant correlations for both socially preferred females ($r = 0.88, df = 14, p < .0001$)⁴ and socially non-preferred females ($r = 0.76, df = 13, p = .001$), with respect to perceived similarity between the subjects and their preferred classmates. No significant difference was found between the latter two correlation coefficients ($z = 0.922, p > .05$), hence socially preferred females were not found to perceive personality similarity, between themselves and their preferred classmates, to any greater extent than did socially non-preferred females. On the other hand, while a statistically significant correlation was obtained between the self-descriptive ratings of socially preferred males, and the subject's rating of their preferred classmates ($r = 0.89, df = 14, p < .0001$), a similar correlation for socially non-preferred males was not statistically significant. Socially non-preferred males, then, were significantly less inclined to perceive personality similarity, between themselves and their preferred classmates, than were socially preferred males ($z = 2.86, p < .01$). The latter effect, on the part of socially non-preferred males, was to reduce the correlation coefficient found for

⁴Critical r (.05), $df = 14$, = 0.426 (one-tailed).

the socially non-preferred group, with respect to perceived personality similarity with their preferred classmates.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that a greater relationship would exist between the evaluative meanings which socially preferred subjects and their preferred classmates ascribe to personality traits, than between socially non-preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. This hypothesis was not supported. The results of a Pearson product-moment correlation analyses indicated that the relationship between the evaluative meanings which socially preferred subjects and their preferred classmates assign to personality characteristics was not statistically significant. The correlation between the evaluative meanings which socially non-preferred subjects and their preferred classmates ascribe to personality characteristics was also not statistically significant.

Further correlation analyses, with respect to sex membership, revealed a statistically non-significant correlation existing between the evaluative meanings which socially preferred females, and their preferred classmates, assign to personality traits. Also, while a trend toward congruence was evident with respect to the evaluative meanings which socially non-preferred females, and their preferred classmates, ascribed to personality traits, the correlation was not statistically significant ($r = 0.44$, $df = 13$, $p = .10$). The correlations between the evaluative meanings assigned to personality traits by socially preferred males and their preferred classmates, as well as,

by socially non-preferred males and their preferred classmates, were not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 4

According to hypothesis 4, it was predicted that socially preferred subjects would interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, than would socially non-preferred subjects. The hypothesis was supported. The results of t-test analyses pertaining to frequency of interaction between subjects and their preferred classmates, both within and outside the school setting, are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The results, concerning the frequency of interaction at school, indicated that no statistically significant differences existed between the proportions of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects reporting to interact 'all of the time' with their preferred classmates. While the difference between the number of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects claiming to interact 'most of the time' with their preferred classmates was not statistically significant, a trend in this latter regard was evident on the part of socially preferred subjects. Interestingly, a significantly greater proportion of socially non-preferred subjects reported interacting 'very seldom' with their preferred classmates, at school, than did socially preferred subjects ($t = 1.57$, $df = 57$, $p = .05$)⁵. However, while a greater number of socially non-preferred subjects

⁵Critical t (.05), $df = 57$, = 1.67 (one-tailed).

TABLE 1

FREQUENCY OF INTERACTION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS, FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP) AND
SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Frequency of Interaction at School								
	Frequency	Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.27	0.28	0.45	0.45	57	0.07	0.46
(2)	Most of the time	0.67	0.48	0.48	0.51	57	1.43	0.07
(3)	Very Seldom	0.07	0.21	0.25	0.41	57	1.57	0.05
(4)	Never	0.0	0.10	0.0	0.41	57	1.38	0.08
(b) Frequency of Interaction Outside the School								
	Frequency	Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.27	0.00	0.45	0.0	57	3.19	0.00
(2)	Most of the time	0.50	0.72	0.51	0.45	57	1.78	0.40
(3)	Very Seldom	0.17	0.14	0.38	0.35	57	0.30	0.38
(4)	Never	0.07	0.14	0.25	0.35	57	0.89	0.18

indicated that they 'never' interact with their preferred classmates at school, than did socially preferred subjects, the difference was not statistically significant.

The results, with respect to frequency of interaction outside the school setting, revealed that a significantly greater proportion of socially preferred subjects reported to interact 'all the time' with their preferred classmate, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 3.19$, $df = 57$, $p = .001$). On the other hand, a significantly greater number of socially non-preferred subjects claimed to interact 'most of the time' with their preferred classmate, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 1.78$, $df = 57$, $p = .04$). Differences between the proportions of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects reporting to interact either 'very seldom' or 'never' with their preferred classmate, outside the school setting, were not statistically significant.

Additional t-test analyses (see Table 2a), with respect to sex membership, revealed no statistically significant differences between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with regard to frequency of interaction with their preferred classmates, inside the school setting. A significantly greater number of socially preferred females, however, reported interacting 'all of the time' with their preferred classmates, outside the school setting, than did socially non-preferred females ($t = 2.17$, $df = 27$, $p = .01$)⁶. While the difference

⁶Critical t (.05), $df = 27$, = 1.703 (one tailed).

TABLE 2a

FREQUENCY OF INTERACTION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS, FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPF)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNF) FEMALES

(a) Frequency of Interaction at School								
	Frequency	Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.40	0.43	0.51	0.51	27	0.15	0.44
(2)	Most of the time	0.53	0.43	0.52	0.51	27	0.54	0.29
(3)	Very Seldom	0.07	0.07	0.26	0.27	27	0.04	0.48
(4)	Never	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.27	27	1.03	0.15
(b) Frequency of Interaction Outside the School								
	Frequency	Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.27	0.00	0.46	0.00	27	2.17	0.01
(2)	Most of the time	0.60	0.86	0.51	0.36	27	1.56	0.06
(3)	Very Seldom	0.13	0.07	0.35	0.27	27	0.53	0.30
(4)	Never	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.27	27	1.03	0.15

between proportions was not statistically significant, there was a trend on the part of socially non-preferred females to interact 'most of the time' with their preferred classmate, outside of school ($t = 1.56$, $df = 27$, $p = .06$).

While a greater number of socially preferred males (see Table 2b), compared to socially non-preferred males, indicated that they interact 'most of the time' with their preferred classmates, at school, the difference was not statistically significant ($t = 1.56$, $df = 28$, $p = .06$)⁷. However, a significantly greater proportion of socially preferred males ($t = 1.87$, $df = 28$, $p = .03$) claimed to interact 'very seldom' with their preferred classmates, at school, compared to socially preferred males. Also, a significantly greater proportion of socially preferred males ($t = 2.26$, $df = 28$, $p = .01$) reported interacting 'all of the time' with their preferred classmates, outside the school setting, than did socially non-preferred males. However, no statistically significant differences were found between the proportions of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, males reporting to interact 'most of the time', 'very seldom', or 'never' with their preferred classmates, away from the school environment.

To summarize, then, the results indicated that socially preferred male and female subjects are inclined to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, outside of school, than are their socially non-preferred counterparts. On the other hand, while

⁷Critical t (.05), $df = 28$, = 1.701 (one tailed).

TABLE 2b

FREQUENCY OF INTERACTION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS, FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPM) AND
SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNM) MALES

(a) Frequency of Interaction at School								
	Frequency	Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.13	0.13	0.35	0.35	28	0.00	0.50
(2)	Most of the time	0.80	0.53	0.41	0.52	28	1.56	0.06
(3)	Very Seldom	0.07	0.33	0.26	0.49	28	1.87	0.03
(4)	Never	0.00	0.13	0.00	0.52	28	1.00	0.16
(b) Frequency of Interaction Outside the School								
	Frequency	Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	df	T	p
(1)	All of the time	0.27	0.00	0.46	0.00	28	2.25	0.01
(2)	Most of the time	0.40	0.60	0.51	0.51	28	1.08	0.14
(3)	Very Seldom	0.20	0.20	0.41	0.41	28	0.00	0.50
(4)	Never	0.13	0.20	0.35	0.41	28	0.47	0.31

socially preferred females did not interact any less frequently with their preferred classmates, at school, than did socially non-preferred females; socially preferred males were found to interact much more frequently, than socially non-preferred males, with their preferred classmates in the school environment.

Hypothesis 5

It was predicted that socially preferred subjects would attain a higher level of academic achievement, and be more similar to one another in academic ability, than would socially non-preferred subjects. Hypothesis 5 was supported. The final grades obtained by socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects with regard to grade 10 English and Social Studies courses, were subjected to both a t-test analysis of means and a one-way analysis of variance (see Table 3). Due to the incidence of missing data, with respect to the socially non-preferred group, the sample was reduced to 28 socially non-preferred subjects (14 males and 14 females). The results indicated that the socially preferred subjects attained a significantly higher academic standing in English 10 ($t = 2.89, df = 56, p = .002$)⁸ and in Social Studies 10 ($t = 2.88, df = 56, p = .002$), than did socially non-preferred subjects. Also, socially non-preferred subjects were found to exhibit a significantly greater variance ($F = 3.83, df = 29/27, p = .0006$) in final grades, for English 10, than did socially preferred subjects. The difference in variance for Social Studies 10 grades, between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, was

⁸Critical $t (.05), df = 56, = 1.671$ (one tailed)

TABLE 3

SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS, AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP) AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Scholastic Achievement Means, S.D., and T-test analysis								
Academic Courses	Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p	
English	67.40	56.00	9.76	19.11	56	2.89	0.00	
Social Studies	62.63	52.32	12.91	14.35	56	2.88	0.00	

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances							
Academic Courses	Variance (SP)	Variance (SNP)	DF (SP)	DF (SNP)	F	p	
English	95.35	365.04	29	27	3.82	0.00	
Social Studies	166.59	206.00	29	27	1.23	0.57	

not statistically significant.

Similar statistical analyses (see Table 4a), with respect to sex membership, revealed no statistically significant differences between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with regard to final grade-point standings in English 10 and Social Studies 10 courses. Socially preferred males, however, were found to attain a significantly higher mean grade-point standing in English 10 ($t = 3.65$, $df = 27$, $p = .0005$) and in Social Studies 10 ($t = 2.95$, $df = 27$, $p = .003$), as compared to socially non-preferred males. While there was a trend toward greater variability in grades obtained by socially non-preferred males, in English 10, the difference in variance was not statistically significant. On the other hand, socially non-preferred females were found to have a significantly greater variance ($F = 3.96$, $df = 14/13$, $p = .01$), in English 10, than did socially preferred females. No statistically significant differences were found in the variance of Social Studies 10 scores, analyzed according to sex membership (see Table 4b).

In summary, the results indicated that while socially preferred subjects attained a higher academic standing in English 10 and Social Studies 10, group differences could be attributed to the performance of socially preferred males with respect to these two academic courses. No statistically significant differences were found between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with regard to final grade-point standing in English 10 and Social Studies 10. Analyses of variance, however, indicated greater variability in the grades obtained

TABLE 4a

SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS, AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPF) AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNF) FEMALES

(a) Scholastic Achievement Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Academic Courses	Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
English	69.40	64.14	9.67	19.25	27	0.93	0.17
Social Studies	63.80	56.93	14.72	13.83	27	12.9	0.10

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Academic Courses	Variance (SPF)	Variance (SNF)	DF (SPF)	DF (SNF)	F	p
English	93.54	370.44	14	13	3.96	0.01
Social Studies	216.60	191.30	14	13	1.13	0.82

TABLE 4b

SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS, AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPM) AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNM) MALES

(a) Scholastic Achievement Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Academic Courses	Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
English	65.40	57.86	9.77	15.65	27	3.64	0.00
Social Studies	61.47	47.71	11.21	13.81	27	2.95	0.00

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Academic Courses	Variance (SPM)	Variance (SNM)	DF (SPM)	DF (SNM)	F	p
English	95.40	244.90	14	13	2.56	0.09
Social Studies	125.55	190.84	14	13	1.52	0.44

by socially non-preferred females, in English 10, such that the scores are both higher and lower than those obtained by socially preferred females. Thus socially preferred females would appear to be more similar to one another in academic ability, with respect to English 10, than are socially non-preferred females. Similarly, a trend toward greater variability in grades obtained in English 10, was found on the part of socially non-preferred males, as compared to socially preferred males. Again, some evidence exists to suggest that socially preferred males may be more similar to one another in academic achievement. The results also suggest that socially preferred subjects may approximate the norms, for scholastic achievement, to a greater extent than do socially non-preferred subjects.

Hypothesis 6

According to this hypothesis, it was predicted that socially preferred subjects would be characterized by greater similarity and a higher level of Verbal intelligence, compared to socially non-preferred subjects. Hypothesis 6 was not supported. The results of t-test analyses, and analyses of variance of verbal intelligence scores between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects are shown in Table 5. The occurrence of missing data reduced the sample size to 27 socially preferred (14 males and 13 females) and 22 socially non-preferred (11 males and 11 females) subjects. The results of the t-test analysis revealed no statistically significant differences existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects with respect to verbal intelligence. Similarly, no

TABLE 5

VERBAL INTELLIGENCE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Verbal Intelligence Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis						
Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
102.96	103.18	14.35	14.11	47	0.05	0.47
(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances						
Variance (SP)	Variance (SNP)	DF (SP)	DF (SNP)	F	p	
215.81	199.11	26	21	1.03	0.94	

significant difference was found in the variances of verbal intelligence scores, between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects.

Further t-test analyses (see Table 6), according to sex membership, indicated no statistically significant differences existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, male and female subjects with regard to verbal intelligence scores. Also, no significant difference was found in the variances of verbal intelligence scores, between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 predicted that socially preferred subjects would be characterized by greater similarity and a higher level of socioeconomic status, compared to socially non-preferred subjects. This hypothesis was not supported. The results of t-test analyses and analyses of variance, for the socioeconomic status variable, are shown in Table 7. The sample size was reduced to 27 socially preferred (14 males and 13 females), and 20 socially non-preferred (11 males and 9 females), subjects due to the incidence of missing data. The results indicated that no statistically significant differences existed between the socioeconomic status of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects. Further, analyses of variance revealed no statistically significant difference in the variability of parent occupations, between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred subjects.

Additional t-test analyses (see Table 8), according to sex

TABLE 6a

VERBAL INTELLIGENCE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPF)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNF) FEMALES

(a) Verbal Intelligence Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
107.42	100.64	15.20	16.20	21	1.03	0.15

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Variance (SPF)	Variance (SNF)	DF (SPF)	DF (SNF)	F	p
231.17	262.45	11	10	1.13	0.83

TABLE 6b

VERBAL INTELLIGENCE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPM)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNM) MALES

(a) Verbal Intelligence Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
99.79	104.55	13.44	12.39	23	0.90	0.18

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Variance (SPM)	Variance (SNM)	DF (SPM)	DF (SNM)	F	p
180.64	153.47	13	10	1.17	0.80

TABLE 7

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Socioeconomic Status Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
52.48	53.15	10.34	10.14	45	0.22	0.41

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Variance (SP)	Variance (SNP)	DF (SP)	DF (SNP)	F	p
106.95	102.87	26	19	1.04	0.94

TABLE 8a

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPF)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNF) FEMALES

(a) Socioeconomic Status Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis						
Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
54.15	52.56	10.42	9.95	20	0.36	0.36
(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances						
Variance (SPF)	Variance (SNF)	DF (SPF)	DF (SNF)	F	p	
108.64	99.03	12	8	1.09	0.92	

TABLE 8b

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-TEST ANALYSIS,
AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPM)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNM) MALES

(a) Socioeconomic Status Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis

Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
50.93	53.64	10.40	10.75	23	0.63	0.26

(b) Summary of Differences Between Variances

Variance (SPM)	Variance (SNM)	DF (SPM)	DF (SNM)	F	p
108.23	115.65	13	10	1.06	0.89

membership, revealed no statistically significant difference existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with respect to socioeconomic status. Similarly, differences between the socioeconomic status of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, males was not statistically significant. Also, differences in the variability of the parental occupations of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, male and female subjects was not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 8

It was hypothesized that socially preferred subjects would manifest a greater number of independent constructs (i.e., differentiation) for interpreting interpersonal stimuli, than would socially non-preferred subjects. Hypothesis 8 was supported. The results of t-test analyses with respect to the differentiation variable are shown in Table 9. Socially preferred subjects were found to manifest a significantly greater number of independent cognitive dimensions, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 1.61$, $df = 57$, $p = .055$).

Further t-test analyses (see Table 9), according to sex membership, revealed that while socially preferred females manifest greater differentiation of cognitive dimensions, as compared to socially non-preferred females, the difference between means was not statistically significant. Similarly, socially preferred males revealed greater differentiation of cognitive dimensions used to interpret interpersonal stimuli, as compared to socially non-preferred males, yet the difference between means was not statistically significant.

TABLE 9

DIFFERENTIATION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP) AND
SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Differentiation Means, S. D., and T-Test Analysis for Groups

Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
5.77	5.45	0.63	0.87	57	1.61	0.05

(b) Differentiation Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for Socially Preferred (SPF) and Socially Non-preferred (SNF) Females

Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
5.87	5.64	0.35	0.63	27	1.18	0.12

(c) Differentiation Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for Socially Preferred (SPM) and Socially Non-preferred (SNM) Males

Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
5.67	5.27	0.82	1.03	28	1.17	0.12

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 predicted that the personal constructs possessed by socially preferred subjects would facilitate finer self-other discriminations, than would the personal constructs of socially non-preferred subjects. The results of t-test analyses with respect to the variable of self-other discrimination, are shown in Table 10. Socially preferred subjects were found to make significantly more self-other discriminations in responding to interpersonal stimuli, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 2.69$, $df = 57$, $p = .004$).

Additional t-test analyses (see Table 10), with regard to sex membership, revealed no statistically significant differences existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with respect to the variable of self-other discrimination. Socially preferred males, however, were found to manifest significantly greater self-other discrimination, in response to interpersonal stimuli, than did socially non-preferred males ($t = 2.88$, $df = 28$, $p = .003$).

Hypothesis 10

The assumption underlying hypothesis 10 was that the personal constructs possessed by socially preferred subjects would permit finer discriminations between other persons (excluding self), than would the personal constructs of socially non-preferred subjects. This hypothesis was supported. The results of t-test analyses for the variable of other-other discrimination are shown in Table 11. The results indicated that the cognitive dimensions manifest by socially preferred subjects permit significantly greater discrimination of differences

TABLE 10

SELF-OTHER DISCRIMINATION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Self-Other Discrimination Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis
for Groups

Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
3.78	3.08	0.90	1.09	57	2.64	0.00

(b) Self-Other Discrimination Means S.D., and T-test Analysis for
Socially Preferred (SPF) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNF) Females

Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
3.69	3.43	0.97	0.80	27	0.77	0.22

(c) Self-Other Discrimination Means, S.D. and T-test Analysis for
Socially Preferred (SPM) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNM) Males

Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
3.88	2.76	0.84	1.25	28	2.88	0.00

TABLE 11

OTHER-OTHER DISCRIMINATION MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Other-Other Discrimination Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis
for Groups

Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
3.26	2.82	0.67	1.00	57	2.00	0.02

(b) Other-Other Discrimination Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for
Socially Preferred (SPF) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNF) Females

Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
3.29	3.17	0.75	0.53	27	0.48	0.31

(c) Other-Other Discrimination Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for
Socially Preferred (SPM) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNM) Males

Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
3.23	2.49	0.60	1.22	28	2.10	0.02

between other persons, than did the cognitive dimensions utilized by socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 2.00$, $df = 57$, $p = .025$).

Further t-test analyses (see Table 11), according to sex membership, indicated no statistically significant differences existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females with regard to the other-other discrimination variable. On the other hand, the cognitive dimensions of socially preferred males facilitated significantly greater discrimination, between others, than did the interpersonal cognitive dimensions manifested by socially non-preferred males ($t = 2.10$, $df = 28$, $p = .022$).

Hypothesis 11

The hypothesis predicted that socially preferred subjects would perceive greater self-distinctiveness in discriminating similarities and differences between themselves and others, than would socially non-preferred subjects. Hypothesis 11 was supported. The results of t-test analyses for the variable of self-distinctiveness are shown in Table 12. Socially preferred subjects were found to perceive significantly greater self-distinctiveness in discriminating similarities and differences between 'self' and others, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 2.28$, $df = 57$, $p = .012$).

Further t-test analyses (see Table 12), pertaining to sex membership, revealed no statistically significant differences existing between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females in relation to the variable of self-distinctiveness. Socially preferred males, however, were found to perceive significantly greater

TABLE 12

SELF-DISTINCTIVENESS MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Self-distinctiveness Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for Groups						
Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
0.15	0.06	0.20	0.09	57	2.28	0.01
(b) Self-Distinctiveness Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for Socially Preferred (SPF) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNF) Females						
Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
0.13	0.07	0.17	0.11	27	1.19	0.12
(c) Self-Distinctiveness Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for Socially Preferred (SPM) and Socially Non-Preferred (SNM) Males						
Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	p
0.18	0.05	0.23	0.08	28	1.94	0.03

self-distinctiveness, with respect to their interpersonal discriminations, than did socially non-preferred males ($t = 1.94$, $df = 28$, $p = .030$).

Hypothesis 12

According to hypothesis 12, it was predicted that socially preferred subjects would be more accurate in their perceptions of the personality traits characterizing their preferred classmates, than would socially non-preferred subjects. The results of a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis for the variable of rating accuracy revealed no statistically significant relationship existing between socially preferred subjects' rating of the personality traits of their preferred classmates, and their preferred classmates self-descriptive rating. Similarly, no statistically significant correlation was found between socially non-preferred subjects' rating of the personality traits of their preferred classmates, and their preferred classmates self-descriptive ratings.

Additional correlation analyses, according to sex membership, indicated that the relationship between socially preferred female's rating of their preferred classmates, and the preferred classmates' self-descriptive rating, on the basis of personality traits, was not statistically significant. However, while the correlation between socially non-preferred female's rating of their preferred classmates, and their preferred classmates' self-descriptive ratings was not statistically significant ($r = 0.47$, $df = 13$, $p = .08$), a trend toward greater rating accuracy was evident on the part of socially

non-preferred females, as compared to socially preferred females. The correlations between personality ratings of preferred classmates, by both socially preferred and socially non-preferred males, and the self-descriptive ratings of their respective 'preferred classmates', were not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 13

Hypothesis 13 predicted that socially preferred subjects would be less inclined toward making extreme categorical judgements (i.e., good-bad) in rating the evaluative meaning, themselves, and their preferred classmates according to personality characteristics, than would socially non-preferred subjects. The hypothesis was only partially supported. The results of t-test analyses pertaining to the variable of categorical judgements, are shown in Table 13. It will be recalled that the term 'categorical judgements' referred to the use of 1's and 7's, the extreme ends of a 7-point scale. The present study involved the rating of personality-trait adjectives according to three 7-point semantic scales, - evaluative meaning (pleasant - unpleasant), self-descriptive (like me - unlike me), and 'preferred classmate' (like preferred classmate - unlike preferred classmate). The results are presented according to the use of 1's, on each of the three 7-point scales, for groups and sex membership; and secondly, according to the use of 7's, on the semantic scales, for groups and sex membership, respectively.

The results of the statistical analyses revealed no significant difference between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred,

TABLE 13

CATEGORICAL JUDGEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNP) SUBJECTS

(a) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 1's

Semantic Scale	Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
Evaluative Meaning	10.80	12.97	6.58	11.20	57	0.90	0.18
Self-descriptive	4.53	6.66	4.91	5.78	57	1.52	0.06
Preferred Classmate	5.13	8.79	4.38	11.54	57	1.62	0.05

(b) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 7's

Semantic Scale	Mean (SP)	Mean (SNP)	S.D. (SP)	S.D. (SNP)	DF	T	p
Evaluative Meaning	17.77	11.00	7.27	9.43	57	3.09	0.00
Self-descriptive	10.83	8.28	7.08	7.88	57	1.31	0.09
Preferred Classmate	10.83	8.28	7.22	7.56	57	1.33	0.09

subjects in their use of 1's to rate personality traits according to evaluative meaning (i.e., very pleasant). Socially non-preferred subjects were more inclined to use 1's, than were socially preferred subjects, in their self-descriptive ratings (i.e., very much like me) of personality traits; although the difference between means was not statistically significant ($t = 1.52$, $df = 57$, $p = .06$). Further, socially non-preferred subjects made significantly greater use of 1's ($t = 1.62$, $df = 57$, $p = .05$) in describing their preferred classmates (very much like preferred classmate), than did socially preferred subjects.

Further t-test analyses, pertaining to sex membership, indicated no statistically significant difference between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females in the use of 1's to rate personality traits, according to evaluative meaning. On the other hand, while socially non-preferred females made greater use of 1's, than socially preferred females, in their self-descriptive ratings of personality traits; the difference between means was not statistically significant ($t = 1.57$, $df = 27$, $p = .06$). No statistically significant difference was found between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females in the use of 1's to describe the personality traits of their preferred classmates (see Table 14). Differences between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, males in the use made of 1's to rate personality traits according to evaluative meaning, and self-description, were not statistically significant. However, socially non-preferred males were more inclined to use 1's in rating their

TABLE 14

CATEGORICAL JUDGEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SP)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNF) FEMALES

(a) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 1's							
Semantic Scale	Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
Evaluative Meaning	10.47	15.79	6.82	14.32	27	1.29	0.10
Self-descriptive	4.27	7.29	4.57	5.72	27	1.57	0.06
Preferred Classmate	5.67	6.64	4.70	5.79	27	0.50	0.31
(b) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 7's							
Semantic Scale	Mean (SPF)	Mean (SNF)	S.D. (SPF)	S.D. (SNF)	DF	T	p
Evaluative Meaning	17.40	12.93	7.60	9.93	27	1.36	0.09
Self-descriptive	11.27	8.86	6.28	7.36	27	0.95	0.17
Preferred Classmate	11.53	8.00	5.82	6.99	27	1.48	0.07

preferred classmates, than were socially preferred males; although the difference between means was not statistically significant ($t = 1.53$, $df = 28$, $p = .06$) (see Table 15).

The results of t-test analyses, with respect to the use of 7's, are shown in Table 13. Socially preferred subjects were found to make significantly greater use of 7's in rating the evaluative meaning (i.e., very unpleasant) of personality traits, than did socially non-preferred subjects ($t = 3.09$, $df = 57$, $p = .001$). Similarly, although the differences between means were not statistically significant, socially preferred subjects were more inclined to use 7's in their self-descriptive ratings, and their ratings of their preferred classmates, than were socially non-preferred subjects.

Additional t-test analyses, related to sex membership, revealed no statistically significant differences between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, females in the use of 7's to rate personality traits according to evaluative meaning and self-description. However, while the difference between means was not statistically significant ($t = 1.48$, $df = 27$, $p = .07$), socially preferred females were more inclined to use 7's in rating their preferred classmates, according to personality traits, than were socially non-preferred females (see Table 14). Socially preferred males, however, made significantly greater use of 7's in rating the evaluative meaning of personality traits, than did socially non-preferred males ($t = 3.02$, $df = 28$, $p = .002$). No statistically significant differences were found between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, males in

TABLE 15

CATEGORICAL JUDGEMENT MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS,
AND T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR SOCIALLY PREFERRED (SPM)
AND SOCIALLY NON-PREFERRED (SNM) MALES

(a) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 1's

Semantic Scale	Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	n
Evaluative Meaning	11.13	10.33	6.55	6.73	28	0.33	0.37
Self-descriptive	4.80	6.07	5.37	5.98	28	0.61	0.27
Preferred Classmate	4.60	10.80	4.14	15.04	28	1.53	0.06

(b) Categorical Judgement Means, S.D., and T-test Analysis for 7's

Semantic Scale	Mean (SPM)	Mean (SNM)	S.D. (SPM)	S.D. (SNM)	DF	T	n
Evaluative Meaning	18.13	9.20	7.18	8.90	28	3.02	0.00
Self-descriptive	10.40	7.73	7.99	8.56	28	0.88	0.19
Preferred Classmate	10.13	8.53	8.54	8.29	28	0.52	0.30

the use of 7's for self-descriptive ratings, and ratings of their preferred classmates (see Table 15).

The results, then, only partially support Hypothesis 13, and hence cannot be regarded as substantiating the predicted directions hypothesized. Generally, the results indicated that while socially non-preferred subjects were more disposed toward the use of 1's in rating both self-descriptive and preferred classmate semantic scales; socially preferred subjects were more inclined to use 7's on all three scales. Thus the results do not substantiate the hypothesis that socially preferred subjects are any more less inclined toward making categorical judgements, than are socially non-preferred subjects.

To summarize, the results of this investigation indicated that socially preferred subjects perceived greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred subjects. Socially preferred subjects were also found to attain a higher level of scholastic achievement, and to be more similar to one another in scholastic abilities, than socially non-preferred subjects. Finally, socially preferred subjects not only manifest more independent personal constructs for interpreting interpersonal stimuli; but such constructs were found to facilitate finer discriminations of similarities and differences between 'self' and other "source" persons, and enhance greater self-distinctiveness, than did the personal constructs elicited by socially non-preferred subjects. A summary of the results of each hypothesis investigated in this study is shown in Table 16.

TABLE 16

SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE HYPOTHESES INVESTIGATED

Hypotheses	Supported (S)	Not Supported(NS)
Hypothesis 1		NS
Hypothesis 2	S	
Hypothesis 3		NS
Hypothesis 4	S	
Hypothesis 5	S	
Hypothesis 6		NS
Hypothesis 7		NS
Hypothesis 8	S	
Hypothesis 9	S	
Hypothesis 10	S	
Hypothesis 11	S	
Hypothesis 12		NS
Hypothesis 13		NS

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this investigation was to identify some variables which may account for differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, students. A review of some literature related to interpersonal attraction suggested that the perception of similar attributes, between persons, is one major factor facilitating interpersonal relationships. The results of this study revealed that socially preferred subjects perceived personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, to a significantly greater extent, than did socially non-preferred subjects. However, no significant relationship was found in actual personality similarity between socially preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. Interestingly, however, a significant relationship was found in actual similarity of personality traits, between socially non-preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. Further analyses, with respect to sex membership, revealed that socially preferred males perceived significantly greater personality similarity between themselves, and their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred males. However, while socially preferred females were inclined to perceive greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred females, the difference was not statistically significant. Interestingly, however, a trend toward significance with respect to

actual personality similarity was found between socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates.

The results of this investigation did not essentially substantiate Stalling's (1970) assumption that the evaluative meaning, which individuals ascribe to personality characteristics, is more important in facilitating interpersonal attraction than is perceived similarity of attributes. With the exception of the marginally significant correlation between the evaluative meanings of socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates, no significant relationship was found to exist between the evaluative meanings of socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, subjects with respect to group or sex membership.

An interesting parallel was that of the relatively high, but non-significant, correlations existing between socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates on the measures of actual personality similarity and evaluative meaning. The author had reason to suspect that a rating bias inherent in the three semantic differential scales, may be contributing to the correlations for the variables of actual similarity, perceived similarity, and evaluative meaning. In this latter regard, it may be recalled that the Personality Trait Index included three 7-point scales following each personality-trait adjective. The mid-point of each scale (i.e., 4th point) provided the subjects and their preferred classmates with a rating category in which to indicate their indecisiveness in rating the personality-trait adjectives. The purpose of this category, from the research standpoint,

was to provide a practical measure of the subjects cognitive ability to comprehend personal characteristics which may have some relationship to the measure of conceptual complexity, on the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970). Interestingly, a post-hoc analyses revealed that socially non-preferred subjects made significantly greater use of the 'indecisive category' in rating personality traits on the evaluative meaning ($t = 2.45$, $df = 57$, $p = .008$) scale, the self-descriptive ($t = 3.12$, $df = 57$, $p = .001$) scale, and the preferred classmate ($t = 2.15$, $df = 57$, $p = .01$) scale. Further post-hoc analyses according to sex membership indicated that socially non-preferred females made more frequent use of the 'indecisive category' in rating the evaluative meaning ($t = 1.93$, $df = 27$, $p = .03$) scale, the self-description ($t = 2.21$, $df = 27$, $p = .01$) scale, and the preferred classmate ($t = 2.06$, $df = 27$, $p = .02$) scale, than did socially preferred females. Similarly, socially non-preferred males were more inclined to use the 'indecisive category' in rating personality-trait adjectives on the evaluative meaning ($t = 1.48$, $df = 28$, $p = .07$) scale, and the self-descriptive ($t = 2.17$, $df = 28$, $p = .01$) scale, than did socially preferred males. However, there was no significant difference between socially preferred, and socially non-preferred, males according to the frequency with which they used this category to rate the preferred classmate scale. The effect, of course, in using the mid-point of the 7-point scale is to reduce the variability between ratings of the subject, and the subject's preferred classmate. Hence the correlations obtained for the socially non-preferred subjects, for

the variables of actual similarity, perceived similarity, and rating accuracy, are likely inflated. The fact that socially non-preferred females were significantly inclined toward using the 'indecisive category' is likely responsible for the marginally significant correlations found between these subjects, and their preferred classmates, for actual personality similarity and evaluative meaning. Perhaps the most important finding revealed by the post-hoc analyses is that socially non-preferred subjects experienced more difficulty in conceptualizing relatively common personality characteristics, in relation to the 'self' and their preferred classmate, than did socially preferred subjects.

The fact that socially preferred subjects were inclined to perceive personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, whereas socially non-preferred were found to be less disposed toward rating their preferred classmate as being similar to them in personality characteristics may be indicative of differences in social reinforcement contingencies experienced. More specifically, it would seem reasonable to assume that socially preferred students experience considerably more positive reinforcement for their behaviors in the school environment than do socially non-preferred students. As a consequence, socially preferred subjects may be inclined to regard such social reinforcement as being indicative of greater attribute similarity with other students than actually exists. On the other hand, socially non-preferred subjects may be more sensitive to differences between themselves and other students as a consequence of experiencing more negative social reinforcement, in their interpersonal relations.

The results with respect to frequency of interaction indicated that socially preferred subjects were more inclined to interact with their preferred classmates, both inside and outside of the school setting, than were socially non-preferred subjects. Further analyses according to sex membership revealed that while socially preferred females did not interact with their preferred classmates more frequently than socially non-preferred females at school; socially preferred females were found to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates outside of school. However, socially preferred males were found to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, both inside and outside the school setting, than did socially non-preferred males. The results of this investigation did not tend to support Stalling's (1970) assumption that frequency of interaction may account for interpersonal attraction, independent of the similarity dimension. In fact, a post-hoc analyses revealed that 55% of the socially preferred females, and 60% of the socially preferred males, chose other socially preferred subjects as their preferred classmates. On the other hand, 71% of the socially non-preferred females, and 73% of the socially non-preferred males, chose students other than socially preferred or socially non-preferred as being their preferred classmates. Further, only 7% of the socially non-preferred females chose socially preferred subjects as their preferred classmates, while 22% of the socially non-preferred females chose other socially non-preferred subjects as their preferred classmates. Yet, 20% of the socially non-preferred males chose socially preferred subjects as their preferred classmates, while

7% of the socially non-preferred males chose other socially non-preferred subjects as their preferred classmates. However, socially preferred subjects did not select any socially non-preferred subjects as being a preferred classmate. The results of the post-hoc analyses tended to support the assumption of Novak and Lerner (1968). These authors contend that if the perception of similarity occurs under circumstances where the salient motives in the situation make similarity relatively threatening and non-rewarding, individuals may be disposed toward dissimilar persons. Indeed, socially non-preferred subjects were inclined to select students, other than similarly socially non-preferred subjects, as their preferred classmates. Stalling (1970) proposed that two individuals who possess the same low-valued personality traits might choose each other in a social or work situation, since they might have learned to expect more reward and less censure from similar persons than from more attractive persons. The results of this study would suggest that while persons sharing similar low-valued characteristics may not be inclined to choose highly attractive persons to interact with, they are also less inclined to choose similar individuals, but may in fact choose persons of relatively 'neutral' social attractiveness. One might also speculate that since socially preferred subjects were more disposed toward choosing other socially preferred subjects as their preferred classmates, that an awareness of their mutual social attractiveness may have acted to distort their perceptions of perceived similarity between one another. Finally, the absence of any significant differences in the evaluative

meanings which socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects. and their preferred classmates, assign to personality traits would strongly suggest that the actual criteria used by students to discriminate interpersonal attractiveness, in the school environment, may consist of attributes other than personality traits (e.g., values, attitudes).

The effect of some demographic variables in accounting for differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects was investigated in the course of this study. The results, with respect to scholastic ability, revealed that socially preferred subjects obtained a higher mean grade-point standing in grade 10 English, and Social Studies courses than did socially non-preferred subjects. However, it was found that the differences in academic performance, between groups, was due to the achievement of the socially preferred males in these two academic courses. Thus, no significant differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females in final grades obtained in English 10 and Social Studies 10. Interestingly, the variance of final grades obtained by socially non-preferred females in English 10, was found to be significantly greater than the variance of grades obtained by socially preferred females. Observation of the data, in fact, revealed that a proportion of the English 10 grades obtained by socially non-preferred females were both higher and lower than those obtained by socially preferred females. Similarly, a trend toward greater variability in final English 10 grades was evident on the part

of socially non-preferred males, compared to the variability of grades found for socially preferred males. There were no significant differences in the variability of Social Studies grades, according to sex membership. The results do suggest, however, that socially preferred students may be more similar to one another, in scholastic ability, than are socially non-preferred students. In fact, there is some indication that socially preferred students may be inclined to approximate the norms in academic achievement; while socially non-preferred students may tend more toward the extreme opposite ends of a continuum in scholastic achievement. Due to the limited number of academic courses utilized in the present investigation, however, the implications arising from the results remain hypothetical and subject to further research verification.

The results, with respect to Verbal intelligence, revealed no significant difference existing between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects. Similarly, no significant differences were found in Verbal intelligence when subjects were examined according to sex membership. Further, no significant differences were found in the variance of Verbal intelligence scores, between groups, and with regard to sex membership. The measure of Verbal intelligence, utilized in this study, was based upon an earlier assessment at the grade 9 level. Hence the intelligence scores cannot be regarded as being a reliable indice of present intellectual functioning. However, the rationale underlying the use of the measure of Verbal intelligence was to determine whether an individual's social attractiveness was related to one's

verbal abilities. The fact that the measure of Verbal intelligence was taken at an earlier period in the subject's education was regarded by the author as being compatible with the nature of interpersonal attraction. More specifically, it would seem reasonable to assume that the interpersonal 'polarization' of students, according to degree of interpersonal attractiveness, developed over the course of time with which they have been associated with one another. Incidentally, the author found (personal communication) that the students utilized in the sample had been together for four years. The results suggest, then, that at the point in time when the assessment of Verbal intelligence was taken, that socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were relatively homogeneous with respect to verbal abilities.

The results, concerning socioeconomic status, indicated that no significant differences existed between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects according to the occupational status of the working parent. Similarly, no significant differences were found in socioeconomic status according to sex membership. Further, no significant differences in the variability of parent occupations were found, between groups, or with respect to the sex variable. The information regarding the parent's occupation was obtained from the subject's Cumulative record, hence this information would not reflect present socioeconomic status as a result of occupational change. The results do suggest, however, that socioeconomic status is not a major factor determining one's social attractiveness. The fact that socioeconomic status was based on the parents' occupation neglects the possibility of

additional sources of student income, which may constitute an independent criterion of student socioeconomic status, irrespective of the parents' occupational status.

The Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970) was included in the present investigation for two purposes. First, this instrument was used to determine whether differences existed between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects with respect to the number of independent constructs they manifest (i.e., differentiation) to interpret interpersonal stimuli. And secondly, the instrument included measures of interpersonal discrimination, and self-distinctiveness, which were used to determine whether differences existed between the same groups of subjects in the extent to which their personal constructs permitted the discrimination of differences between 'self' and others. The results confirmed the hypotheses in that socially preferred subjects were found to have more independent, and unique, constructs for the purpose of making interpersonal discriminations, than did socially non-preferred subjects. Further, socially preferred subjects utilized their personal constructs to make finer discrimination between 'self' and others; as well as between other persons (excluding the self), than did socially non-preferred subjects. Also, the personal constructs of socially preferred subjects permitted them to perceive more self-distinctiveness, in relation to the characteristics of other persons, than did the personal constructs of socially non-preferred subjects. Thus socially non-preferred subjects were found to manifest personal construct systems which allowed

minimal discrimination between 'self' and others, resulting in perceptions of attribute similarity.

When the measures of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discrimination were examined with respect to sex membership, socially preferred males were found to have significantly more independent constructs than did socially non-preferred males. These personal constructs also enabled the socially preferred males to make finer discriminations between 'self' and others, and between others (other-other discrimination variable), than did the personal constructs of the socially non-preferred males. On the other hand, while socially preferred females were inclined to elicit more independent constructs and to make finer interpersonal discriminations (i.e., self-other and other-other discriminations) than did socially non-preferred females, the differences between means were not statistically significant. Yet, while socially preferred males perceived greater self-distinctiveness between themselves and others than did socially non-preferred males the socially preferred females were found to differ from socially non-preferred females on the measure of self-distinctiveness only to a marginally significant degree. Interestingly, previous research concerned with cognitive complexity of interpersonal discriminative abilities has revealed relatively consistent sex differences, such that, females have been found to be more cognitively complex than males (Crockett, 1965; Douvan & Adelson, 1966). The authors have been in accord in attributing sex differences, in cognitive complexity, to the greater importance given to interpersonal relationships in the lives of

females, as compared to males. The results of the present investigation, which found differences in conceptual complexity between members of the same sex, according to the extent of one's social attractiveness, suggests additional support for Crockett's (1965) hypothesis. According to Crockett (1965) cognitive complexity is a function of the 'frequency and intensity' with which an individual interacts with social stimuli, in one's interpersonal environment.

An interesting discrepancy is apparent in the results of this investigation. While the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (IDT) indicated that socially preferred subjects possessed a complex system of personal constructs which facilitated finer interpersonal discriminations than did the constructs of socially non-preferred subjects, socially preferred subjects were found not only to perceive greater personality similarity between their preferred classmates than did socially non-preferred subjects, but were not any more accurate in rating the personality characteristics of their preferred classmates than were socially non-preferred subjects. In the latter regard, the results indicated that with the exception of socially non-preferred females, socially preferred subjects were not inclined to be more accurate in discriminating the personality characteristics of their preferred classmates than were socially non-preferred subjects. A marginally significant correlation was found between the socially non-preferred females' ratings of their preferred classmates, according to personality traits, and the self-descriptive ratings of the preferred classmates. However, the factor of a rating bias, previously mentioned

in connection with the post-hoc analyses of ratings in the 'indecisive category' could account for the marginally significant correlation obtained by the socially non-preferred females for the rating accuracy variable. There are some other methodological factors, however, which could account for the discrepancy found in the performance of socially preferred subjects with respect to the variables on the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (IDT), and their performance on the variables associated with the Personality Trait Index (PTI). First, the IDT required the subjects to elicit their own personal concepts for discriminating interpersonal stimuli. Theoretically, these personal concepts are assumed to represent those which the individual actually uses to discriminate similarities and differences between 'self' and other persons in one's social environment (Kelly, 1955). On the other hand, the PTI consisted of personality traits which may have represented an external set of constructs which the subjects were not generally accustomed to using in making interpersonal discriminations. Interestingly, the results of the post-hoc analyses concerning the frequency of ratings in the 'indecisive category' did suggest that socially non-preferred subjects experienced more difficulty in conceptualizing the personality traits, in evaluating 'self' and their preferred classmates, than did the socially preferred subjects. However, socially preferred subjects were not any more accurate in discriminating similarities and differences between themselves and their preferred classmates, according to the personality traits on the PTI, than were socially non-preferred subjects. This latter factor may

suggest that when individuals are required to make interpersonal discriminations on the basis of characteristics which are not representative of their own personal construct system, they may be inclined to regress to lower developmental levels of interpersonal discrimination in which the perception of similarity takes precedence over the recognition of differences. A second factor which may have accounted for the fact that the interpersonal discriminative abilities exhibited by the socially preferred subjects on the IDT did not generalize to the PTI in that the persons which the subjects rated on the IDT may have been known more intimately than was the subject's preferred classmate. In other words, the persons which the subject rated on the IDT, according to the subject's personal constructs, need not have included the subject's preferred classmate. Hence the generalizations made on the basis of one's interpersonal discriminative abilities, as measured by the IDT, may only be reliable to the extent that they relate to the individuals being rated on this instrument. The results of the IDT may have borne a much greater relationship to those on the PTI had the subjects been required to rate the three 'liked' and three 'disliked' students, given on the sociometric instrument, in place of those persons which the subject rated on the IDT.

Some conceptual complexity theorists (e.g., Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967) propose that persons functioning at a low level of conceptual complexity are more inclined toward making categorical judgements regarding the behavior of 'self' and others, than are individuals functioning at high levels of conceptual complexity. More

specifically, persons functioning at low levels of conceptual complexity are described as being prone to assimilate external valuations of acceptable behavior which generally result in the dichotomization of judgements (i.e., black - white, good - bad), when evaluating the behavior of 'self' and others. On the other hand, conceptually complex individuals are described as developing more internally related, integrated systems of values, which permit them to respond more flexibly, and comprehend more meaningfully, the behaviors of others (Schroder, Drive & Streufert, 1967). These latter assumptions appeared to have some implications for recent observations by interpersonal attraction theorists (Hendrick & Brown, 1971), who propose that the similarity-attraction paradigm may only be valid in explaining the attraction behaviors of individuals inclined to be egocentric. More specifically, these authors proposed that individuals who are inclined to like those behaviors which characterize them and dislike behaviors which do not, may be disposed to entertain interpersonal relationships based only upon mutual similarity of attributes. The implication, of course, is that one's interpersonal attractiveness may be inversely related to the degree that one exhibits egocentrism. In fact, Mitchell (1971) proposed that egocentrism is one major factor underlying adolescent social alientation. The present study examined the tendency of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects toward making categorical judgements (i.e., the use of 1's and 7's) in rating 'self' and their preferred classmate according to personality traits. Interestingly, the results indicated that while socially preferred and

socially non-preferred subjects did not differ in the proportion of 1's used to rate the evaluative meanings (i.e., very pleasant) of personality traits; socially non-preferred subjects were more inclined to use 1's in describing 'self' (i.e., very much like me) and their preferred classmate (i.e., very much like preferred classmate) than were socially preferred subjects. On the other hand, socially preferred subjects were much more disposed toward using 7's in rating the evaluative meaning, self-descriptive, and preferred classmate scales than were socially non-preferred subjects. Thus socially preferred subjects were not any less inclined toward making categorical judgments than were socially non-preferred subjects. Additional analyses, according to sex membership, revealed that while socially non-preferred females indicated a trend toward the use of significantly more 1's in rating personality traits according to the evaluative meaning, and self-descriptive scales; the socially preferred females also revealed a trend toward the use of significantly more 7's to rate personality traits on the evaluative meaning, and preferred classmate scales. Socially non-preferred males, however, indicated a trend toward the use of significantly more 1's to rate the preferred classmate, according to personality traits. Yet, socially preferred males were found to use a significant number of 7's in rating the evaluative meaning of personality traits. Generally, females revealed a greater tendency toward making categorical judgments than did males. However, no greater tendency existed on the part of either socially preferred or socially non-preferred subjects of either sex toward making categorical

judgements. The fact that two-thirds of the personality-trait adjectives consisted of both highly 'likable' and highly 'unlikable' characteristics would further suggest that socially preferred and socially non-preferred students do not appear to differ in their inclination toward egocentrism. The fact that socially preferred subjects were found to be more cognitively complex apparently had little bearing on their disposition toward making categorical judgements.

In conclusion, then, the present investigation revealed certain characteristics which socially preferred students tend to share, as compared to socially non-preferred subjects. First, socially preferred students tend to be more inclined to perceive similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, over a broader range of attributes, than do socially non-preferred students. Since actual personality similarity was not found to characterize the relationship between subjects and their preferred classmates, differences in inclination toward perceiving similarity may reflect the consequence of the different social reinforcement contingencies experienced by socially preferred and socially non-preferred students. Secondly, socially preferred students appear to not only interact more frequently with their preferred classmates than do socially non-preferred students, but prefer to interact with other socially preferred students. On the other hand, socially non-preferred students appear to interact with students other than those who are socially preferred, or socially non-preferred. Thus, frequency of interaction did not appear to operate independently of

perceived similarity in facilitating interpersonal attraction. Thirdly, the results suggested that socially preferred students are more similar to one another in scholastic abilities than are socially non-preferred students. Further, the results suggested that socially non-preferred students may be representative of a population which approximates the extreme opposite ends of the scholastic achievement continuum.

Measures of Verbal intelligence, however, suggested that socially preferred and socially non-preferred students may be relatively homogeneous, with respect to verbal abilities. The measure of Verbal intelligence, however, could not be regarded as being a reliable measure of the subject's present level of intellectual functioning.

Similarly, socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were not found to differ with respect to a measure of socioeconomic status. Hence this latter variable does not appear to be a significant criterion of a student's interpersonal attractiveness. Finally, socially preferred students appear to be more conceptually complex in the social concepts they use to interpret interpersonal stimuli than are socially non-preferred students. Also, the personal constructs of socially preferred subjects appear to facilitate finer discriminations between 'self' and other social stimuli than do the personal constructs of socially non-preferred students. However, the conceptual complexity, and interpersonal discriminative abilities, found to characterize the socially preferred subjects, did not generalize beyond the situational social context in which it was measured. Yet, Crockett (1965) proposed that one's level of cognitive complexity is directly related to the

'frequency and intensity' of one's interpersonal relationships, and to the extent that socially preferred subjects represent a group of individuals who interact more frequently with a greater number of social stimuli, than do socially non-preferred subjects, then the results could be interpreted as contributing support for Crockett's (1965) hypothesis.

In conclusion, the results did provide support for the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1969) with respect to the interpersonal attraction behavior of socially preferred subjects. The fact that socially preferred subjects were inclined to select other socially preferred subjects as their preferred classmates, and to perceive personality similarity between themselves to a significant extent, supports the assumption that the perception of mutually shared attributes between persons facilitates interpersonal attraction.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The present investigation was designed to examine the effect of some variables in accounting for differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects. A review of some of the literature related to interpersonal attraction suggested that the perception of similarity of shared attributes was one major factor facilitating interpersonal relationships (Byrne, 1969; Byrne & Griffitt, 1969; Byrne, Griffitt & Stefaniak, 1967). In effect, then, these authors proposed that persons are attracted toward those sharing similar attributes and away from persons perceived to have dissimilar attributes. Other interpersonal attraction theorists (Hendrick & Brown, 1971; Novak & Lerner, 1968) maintain, however, that under circumstances in which the salient motives in the situation make the perception of similarity relatively threatening, and non-rewarding, persons may be attracted toward dissimilar individuals. In this latter regard, Stalling (1970) proposed that it was the evaluative meaning associated with personality characteristics, which if mutually shared, was the essential factor prompting interpersonal attraction between individuals. Yet, Stalling (1970) did suggest that interpersonal attraction may be found to occur due to social proximity, or frequency of interaction, independent of

the evaluative meaning dimension.

On the basis of the theoretical rationale underlying the similarity-attraction paradigm, a basic assumption was made concerning differences in the interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred and socially non-preferred students. The basic assumption was that socially preferred students would be more similar to other students, with respect to a greater number of attributes, than would socially non-preferred students. Further, to the extent that socially non-preferred students shared attributes which were socially non-rewarding, these students would be attracted to dissimilar individuals. Some hypotheses were formulated on the basis of this assumption, and are as follows:

1. Socially preferred students will be more similar to their preferred classmates, in personality traits (actual similarity), than will be socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates.

2. Socially preferred students will perceive greater similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than will socially non-preferred students.

3. A greater relationship will exist between the evaluative meanings which socially preferred students, and their preferred classmates, ascribe to personality traits, than between the evaluative meanings of socially non-preferred students and their preferred classmates.

4. Socially preferred students will interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, than socially non-preferred students.

Some additional variables, including academic ability, verbal intelligence, and socioeconomic status were investigated in the course of this study. These variables were regarded, by the author, as constituting some criteria which may be instrumental in sanctioning one's social attractiveness. The author was not only concerned with determining differences in performance between socially preferred and socially non-preferred students, with respect to these variables, but also in determining the degree of similarity of the students within groups according to these variables. Thus the author proposed that:

5. Socially preferred students will be more similar in scholastic ability and attain a higher level of scholastic achievement, than will socially non-preferred students.

6. Socially preferred students will be more similar in intelligence and characterized by a higher level of Verbal intelligence as compared to socially non-preferred students.

7. Socially preferred students will be more similar and characterized by a higher level of socioeconomic status as compared to socially non-preferred students.

Some personality theorists (Bieri, 1955; Kelly, 1955; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967) propose that the degree of cognitive complexity with which one interprets stimuli in their social environment effects, in turn, their ability to accurately discriminate interpersonal stimuli. Thus, persons functioning at low levels of conceptual complexity are hypothesized to experience difficulties in discriminating similarities and differences between 'self' and others

(Carr, 1965; Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967). Further, some cognitive complexity theorists (e.g., Crockett, 1965) have found that an individual's level of complexity is directly related to the frequency and intensity of interaction with stimuli in one's interpersonal environment. Schroder, Driver and Streufert (1967) also propose that persons functioning at low levels of conceptual complexity tend to be authoritarian, less open-minded, and prone to make categorical judgments (i.e., black and white) regarding appropriate behaviors due to their inclination toward assimilating external standards of conduct as a basis for evaluating 'self' and others. Thus, measures of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discriminative ability were included in the present study to determine if these variables might contribute some explanation for the differences in interpersonal attractiveness of socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects. Specific hypotheses related to these variables were as follows:

8. Socially preferred students will manifest a greater number of independent constructs (i.e., differentiated) for interpreting interpersonal stimuli, than will socially non-preferred students.

9. The personal constructs of socially preferred students will facilitate finer self-other discriminations than will the personal constructs of socially non-preferred students.

10. The personal constructs of socially preferred students will permit finer discriminations between other persons (excluding self), than will the personal constructs of socially non-preferred students.

11. Socially preferred students will perceive greater self-distinctiveness, in discriminating similarities and differences between themselves and others, than will socially non-preferred students.

12. Socially preferred students will be more accurate in their perceptions of the personality traits characterizing their preferred classmates, than will socially non-preferred students.

13. Socially preferred students will be less inclined toward making extreme categorical judgements in rating the evaluative meaning, themselves, and their preferred classmates, according to personality traits, than will socially non-preferred students.

A sample consisting of 30 socially preferred (15 females and 15 males) students and 29 socially non-preferred (14 females and 15 males) students, was selected on the basis of sociometric ratings. The sample consisted of grade 11 students ranging in age from 15 to 17 years. Each subject selected a 'preferred classmate' to be rated according to a Socialization Questionnaire, and the Personality Trait Index. Subjects rated their preferred classmates according to the frequency with which they interacted at school and outside the school setting, on the Socialization Questionnaire. The Personality Trait Index consisted of 60 personality-trait adjectives rated according to their degree of 'likableness' (Anderson, 1968). An equal proportion of adjectives was randomly selected from 'high likable', 'neutral', and 'low likable' sections of Anderson's (1968) instrument. The subjects rated each personality-trait adjective on the basis of the trait's evaluative meaning, how descriptive the trait was of 'self',

and how descriptive the trait was of their preferred classmate on three 7-point scales, respectively. The subject's preferred classmate was also required to complete the Personality Trait Index. The subjects then completed the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970) which included measures of cognitive complexity and interpersonal discrimination. Information concerning the subject's academic standing, Verbal intelligence, and socioeconomic status was obtained from the subject's Cumulative record.

The results indicated that socially preferred subjects perceived greater personality similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred subjects. However, no significant relationship was found in actual similarity of personality traits between socially preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. On the other hand, actual personality similarity was found to exist between socially non-preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. Further analyses, according to sex membership, revealed that socially preferred males perceived greater personality similarity between their preferred classmates, than did socially non-preferred males. Yet, while socially preferred females were inclined to perceive greater personality between themselves and their preferred classmates than did socially non-preferred females, the difference was not statistically significant. Actual personality similarity, however, was only found to exist to a marginally significant degree between socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates. There were no significant relationships found between the evaluative meanings

which socially preferred subjects and their preferred classmates ascribe to personality traits. Similarly, no significant relationship existed between the evaluative meanings ascribed to personality traits by socially non-preferred subjects and their preferred classmates. Further, with the exception of a trend toward a significant correlation between the evaluative meanings of socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates, no relationship existed between the evaluative meanings of subjects and preferred classmates, according to sex membership.

Socially preferred subjects were found to interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, both at school and outside the school setting. However, while no significant differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females with respect to frequency of interaction with their preferred classmates at school, socially preferred females reported interacting more frequently with their preferred classmate, outside of school, than did socially non-preferred females. On the other hand, socially preferred males reported interacting more frequently with their preferred classmates at school, and outside of school, than did socially non-preferred males.

Socially preferred subjects were found to attain a higher academic standing in grade 10 English and Social Studies courses. Additional analyses, with respect to sex membership, revealed that it was in fact the scholastic performance of the socially preferred males as compared to socially non-preferred males, in these academic courses, which contributed to the group differences. Thus, no difference was

found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females in final grades for English 10 and Social Studies 10. Interestingly, however, socially non-preferred females were found to exhibit significantly greater variability in the grades obtained for English 10 than did socially preferred females. Similarly, a trend was found on the part of socially non-preferred males toward greater variance in English 10 grades compared to socially preferred males, although the difference was not statistically significant. No significant differences in variability were found with respect to Social Studies grades, according to sex membership. The results did suggest, however, that socially preferred students may be more similar to one another in scholastic abilities, than are socially non-preferred students. The results with respect to measures of Verbal intelligence and socioeconomic status revealed no significant differences between groups, nor according to sex membership. Similarly, no differences in variance were found with respect to either variable, according to groups or sex membership.

Measures of conceptual complexity and interpersonal discriminative ability indicated that socially preferred subjects not only manifest significantly more independent constructs (i.e., differentiation) for interpreting social stimuli, than did socially non-preferred subjects; but their personal constructs permit finer discriminations between 'self' and other, and between other persons (excluding the self), than did the personal constructs of socially non-preferred subjects. Also, socially preferred subjects were found to perceive greater self-distinctiveness in discriminating similarities and

differences between themselves and others, than did socially non-preferred subjects. However, when the complexity measures were examined with respect to sex membership, differences in differentiation of personal constructs favoring socially preferred females and males tended toward statistical significance. On the other hand, socially preferred males were found to make finer discriminations between 'self' and others, as well as between other persons (excluding 'self'), than did socially non-preferred males. Yet, no significant differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females with respect to measures of self-other discrimination and other-other discrimination. Similarly, while socially preferred males were found to perceive greater self-distinctiveness between themselves and others, than did socially non-preferred males; no significant differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred females with respect to the measure of self-distinctiveness. Thus, the results indicated that while socially preferred males and females tend to manifest more independent, and unique, constructs for interpreting interpersonal stimuli, it is the socially preferred males who utilize their personal constructs to make finer interpersonal discriminations. Socially preferred and socially non-preferred females were not found to differ in their interpersonal discriminative abilities. The results also revealed that socially preferred subjects were not more accurate than socially non-preferred subjects in rating their preferred classmates, according to personality traits. However, a trend toward statistical significance was found between socially preferred females'

rating of their preferred classmates, with respect to personality traits, and their preferred classmates; self-descriptive ratings. And finally, socially preferred subjects were not found to be any less inclined toward making categorical judgements, than did socially non-preferred subjects. More specifically, while no differences were found between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects in the use of 1's to rate the evaluative meaning of the personality traits, socially non-preferred subjects did use significantly more 1's in rating the self-descriptive, and preferred classmate scales. On the other hand, socially preferred subjects were more inclined to use 7's in rating personality traits on the evaluative meaning, self-descriptive, and preferred classmate scales, than were socially non-preferred subjects. Additional analyses, according to sex membership, indicated that while socially non-preferred females were inclined to use more 1's to rate personality traits on the evaluative meaning, and self-descriptive scales; socially preferred females revealed a trend toward more frequent use of 7's to rate personality traits on the evaluative meaning, and preferred classmate scales. Socially non-preferred males indicated a trend toward more frequent use of 1's to rate the preferred classmate, on personality traits. Yet, socially preferred males were found to use a statistically significant number of 7's in rating personality traits according to their evaluative meaning. Generally, females revealed a greater tendency toward making categorical judgements than did males. However, there was no greater inclination on the part of socially preferred or socially non-preferred subjects of either

sex toward making categorical judgements. The fact that two-thirds of the personality-trait adjectives consisted of both highly 'likable' and highly 'unlikable' characteristics would further support the conclusion that socially preferred and socially non-preferred students do not appear to differ in an inclination toward egocentrism.

In the discussion of the results, certain characteristics which socially preferred students shared, as contrasted with socially non-preferred students, were mentioned. First, socially preferred students, as a group, are more inclined to perceive similarity between themselves and other classmates over a broad range of attributes, than are socially non-preferred students. This latter factor was discussed as being a possible consequence of differences in the social reinforcement contingencies experienced by socially preferred and socially non-preferred students. Secondly, socially preferred students interact more frequently with their preferred classmates, both at school and outside the school setting. Also, socially preferred students tend to interact more frequently with other socially preferred students, while socially non-preferred students indicate a preference to interact with students other than those who are socially preferred or socially non-preferred. Thus frequency of interaction between students, would appear to be a major factor facilitating interpersonal attraction, but did not operate independently of perceived personality similarity. Thirdly, the results suggest that socially preferred students are more similar to one another in scholastic abilities, than are socially non-preferred students. More specifically, the results suggested that

socially non-preferred subjects may represent a population of students of high and low academic ability, while the socially preferred subjects may be representative of a population of students which tend to achieve closer to the norms of the total student population, in academic ability. Measures of Verbal intelligence, however, revealed that socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects were relatively homogeneous, with respect to general verbal abilities. Similarly, socioeconomic status was not found to differentiate between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects, hence this variable did not appear to be a criterion of interpersonal attractiveness. And finally, socially preferred students appear to be more conceptually complex with respect to the social constructs which they use to interpret interpersonal stimuli, than are socially non-preferred students. Also, socially preferred students appear to be more inclined toward making finer discriminations between social stimuli, than do socially non-preferred students. However, the cognitive complexity, and interpersonal discriminative ability, found to characterize socially preferred subjects does not appear to generalize beyond the situational context in which it was measured, on the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970). Again the inability of socially preferred subjects to make more accurate judgement regarding the extent to which personality traits characterize their preferred classmate, than did socially non-preferred subjects, may be the consequence of differences in the social reinforcement contingencies experienced. More specifically, being in the receipt of positive reinforcement for their behaviors,

socially preferred students may be inclined to be less aware of differences between themselves and other students. On the other hand, socially non-preferred students may be more inclined toward perceiving differences between themselves and other students, rather than similarities, due to the receipt of negative social reinforcement from the student population.

Limitations

The limitations inherent in the present investigation relate essentially to methodology. A rating bias, for example, was found to arise due to the method of constructing the 7-point scales in the Personality Trait Index. More specifically, an 'indecisive category' had been included in each of the three 7-point scales, following a personality-trait adjective, for the purpose of allowing subjects to indicate whether they felt that a trait was either irrelevant, or impossible to rate. The research implications inherent in the 'indecisive category', however, were to provide an indice of the subject's ability to conceptualize a variety of personality constructs for the purpose of describing 'self' and their preferred classmates. In fact, socially non-preferred subjects were found to use this category more frequently in rating the three 7-point scales, than did socially preferred subjects. The frequency of rating, combined with the position of this category at the mid-point of the scales would contribute to inflating the correlation coefficients. Socially non-preferred females made significantly greater use of the 'indecisive

category', than did other subjects. This latter factor likely contributed to the marginally significant correlations obtained between socially non-preferred females and their preferred classmates for the variables of actual similarity, evaluative meaning, and rating accuracy.

Another limitation in the present investigation concerned the number of academic courses used to obtain a measure of the subjects' scholastic achievement. An examination of the grade 10 program of studies for each subject revealed only two courses which all subjects had taken - English and Social Studies. Hence the validity and reliability of the findings with respect to the variable of academic ability may not generalize beyond these two academic courses.

The Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970) also presented certain limitations. First, the persons which the subjects rated on this instrument, according to the discrimination measures, need not have included the preferred classmate nor any other students. Thus the persons which the subjects rated may have been known more intimately than was the preferred classmate. This factor may have accounted somewhat for the discrepancy in the performance of the subjects, between the Interpersonal Discrimination Test and the Personality Trait Test. This discrepancy may have been eliminated had the subjects been required to rate the three 'liked' and three 'disliked' students recorded by the subject on the sociometric instrument, in place of those individuals which the subject used to complete the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (IDT). A second limitation posed

by the IDT involved the variable of 'differentiation'. The measure of 'differentiation' was obtained for each subject by eliminating those personal constructs characterized by both objective and semantic similarity (see Appendix C). However, in the author's opinion the criteria for 'differentiation' neglected considering the connotative quality of the personal constructs elicited by the subjects. For example, the bipolar construct 'fat - slim' would certainly appear to be less conceptually complex than would the bipolar construct 'modest - conceited'. The measure of 'differentiation', then, fails to take into consideration differences in constructs which may only represent external (e.g., physical) characteristics as opposed to personal constructs (e.g., personality traits) which only those having a more complex understanding of themselves would be capable of providing. Finally, the reliability of the instrument was found to be low and likely reflects the fact that subjects are free to change "source" persons as well as personal constructs from test to retest.

Implications

This investigation found that differences existed between socially preferred and socially non-preferred subjects in the extent to which they perceived similarity between themselves and their preferred classmates, with respect to personality traits. Further investigations, however, may find considerable variations from the results of this study, if attention were focused upon other variables, such as, attitudes (e.g., attitudes toward school, education, etc.,) and values. In fact, the absence of any relationships between subjects in actual

similarity, and the general inability of subjects to accurately rate their preferred classmates on personality traits, may suggest that other variables may be more important in accounting for differences in interpersonal attractiveness than are personality characteristics.

Further research which utilizes the Interpersonal Discrimination Test (Carr, 1970), may find greater generalizability if the social stimuli (i.e., persons being discriminated) are closely related to the specific population of individuals to whom the researcher wishes to make generalizations regarding level of cognitive complexity, and interpersonal discriminative ability.

The results, with respect to cognitive complexity and interpersonal discriminative ability revealed differences between, and within, sexes when individuals are differentiated on the basis of their social attractiveness. The implication, then, is that persons varying in interpersonal attractiveness may, in fact, differ in level of social development. Hence, further research devoted to a developmental examination of interpersonal discriminative abilities of individuals, according to interpersonal attractiveness, would seem important.

Finally, the study did present some implications for counseling personnel involved in facilitating the interpersonal attractiveness of socially non-preferred students. The results suggested that socially non-preferred subjects may be less inclined to perceive certain characteristics between themselves and other classmates upon which mutual positive reinforcement could be obtained through recognition of similarity of these characteristics. Such recognition may

require individual counselling, at the outset, in order to help the individual become more aware of 'self' and to clarify any misperception concerning similarities and differences between 'self' and others. However, group counselling involving socially preferred and other socially non-preferred students would be seen as the ultimate course of counselling, where feedback from other students could be constructively presented with the purpose of promoting the development of meaningful relationships among persons in the individual's immediate social environment.

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APPENDIX A

Sociometric Instrument, Socialization
Questionnaire, Sociometric Grid-Analysis,
and Rationale for 'Socially preferred'
and 'Socially non-preferred' Subject

The information being requested of you, in the following booklet, is to be used as part of a larger study designed to investigate the accuracy of interpersonal judgements of persons in your age group. Your cooperation in this regard would be most gratefully appreciated. All information provided in the booklet is strictly confidential. Please feel free to inquire further regarding the purpose of the study and the use made of the information you are being asked to provide.

SOCIOMETRIC INSTRUMENT

The following information concerns social relationships between yourself and fellow students, in GRADE ELEVEN, in your school. PLEASE DO NOT GIVE NAMES OF GRADE ELEVEN STUDENTS OUTSIDE THIS SCHOOL.

1. (a) List the names of three grade eleven students whom you most prefer: _____, _____, _____.
- (b) List the names of three grade eleven students whom you least prefer: _____, _____, _____.

Socialization Questionnaire

2. Select the name of one of your most preferred choices, and state that name here: _____.
- (a) How frequently do you interact with this person at school, as compared to other students? (check)
All the time (); Most of the time (); Very seldom (); Never ().
- (b) How frequently do you interact with this person away from the school setting, as compared to other students? (check)
All the time (); Most of the time (); Very seldom (); Never ().

Sociometric Grid-Analysis

Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	.	.	.	n
1															
2															
3															
4															
.															
n															
Total +															
Total -															

FIGURE 1

EXAMPLE OF THE MATRIX USED FOR ANALYSIS
OF SOCIOMETRIC CHOICES, FOR GRADE
ELEVEN STUDENTS IN EACH SCHOOL

Each potential subject's name was listed both vertically and horizontally,- on the sociometric grid. Beginning with student number 1, on the vertical listing, the student's three 'most preferred' and three 'least preferred' choices were located on the horizontal list of student's names. The 'preferred' choices were marked with a plus (+), and the 'non-preferred' choices with a minus (-) sign. The choices were obtained from information supplied by each student on the sociometric instrument. The total number of positive and negative choices received by each student was tallied, and the selection of a sample of 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' subjects was made as described by the operational definitions for these terms.

Rationale for Selecting Socially Preferred and Socially Non-preferred Subjects

The frequency distributions for positive and negative sociometric choices, by all grade 11 students sampled, are shown in Figures 2 and 3, respectively. Observation of the frequency distribution, for positive choices, revealed that while the majority of students received either one or two positive choices, it became increasingly difficult to obtain three or more positive choices. In fact, a chi-square analysis of the proportion of students receiving one, two, and three positive choices, indicated that it was significantly more difficult to obtain three positive choices, than one or two choices ($\chi^2 = 6.12$, $df = 2$, $.05 < p < .01$)¹.

On the other hand, the frequency distribution for negative sociometric choices revealed that while the majority of students obtained no negative choices, very few students obtained three negative choices. Again, a chi-square analysis of the proportions of students obtaining either no negative choices, one negative choice, or three negative choices revealed a statistically significant difference existing between these proportions ($\chi^2 = 51.23$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$)². Further, a chi-square analysis of the proportions of students receiving one, or three negative choices indicated that it was significantly less difficult to obtain one negative choice, than to obtain three negative

¹Critical χ^2 (.05), $df = 2$, = 5.99 (two-tailed)

²Critical χ^2 (.001), $df = 2$, = 13.82 (two-tailed)

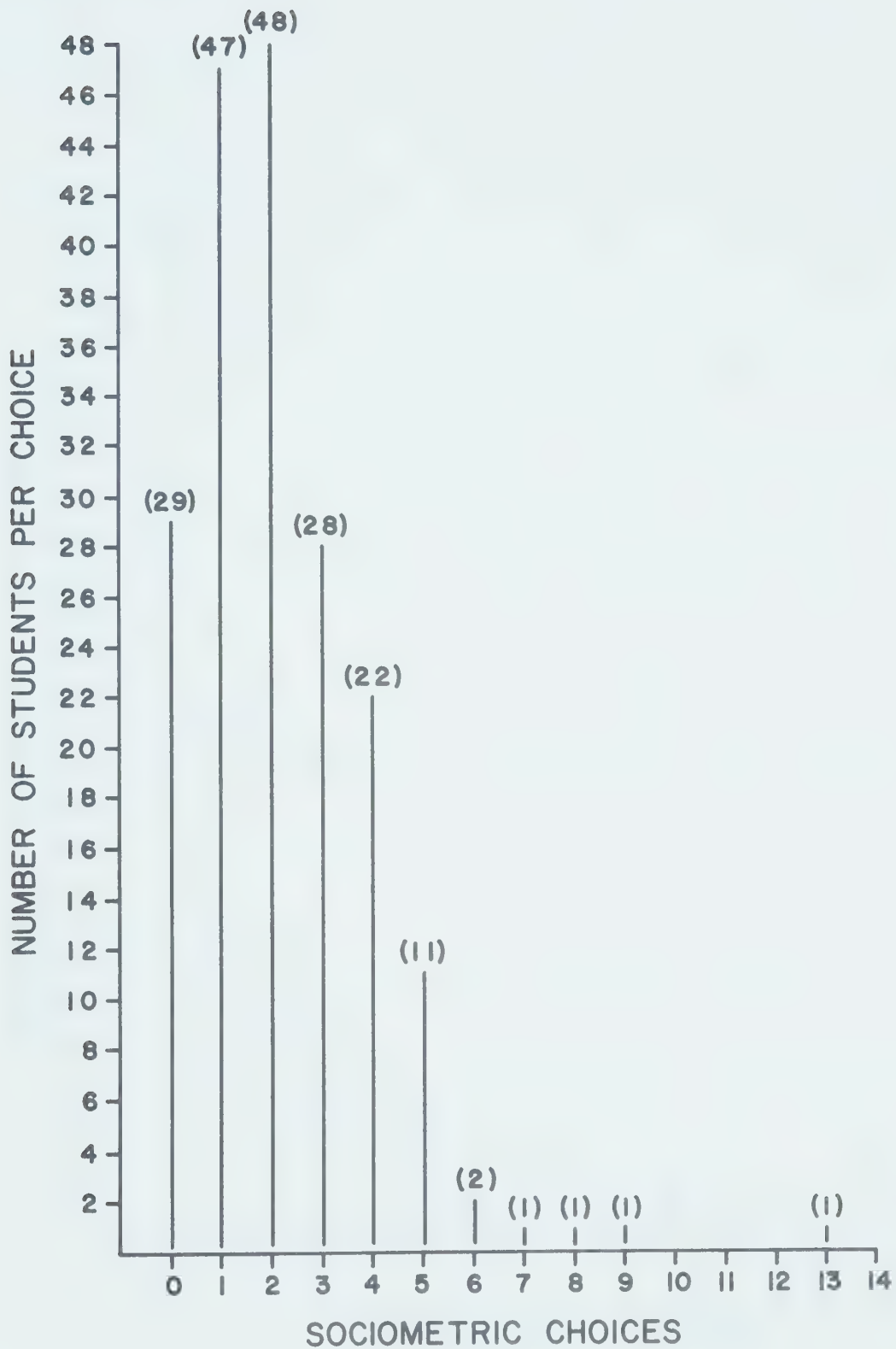


FIGURE 2

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF POSITIVE SOCIO-METRIC CHOICES FOR GRADE ELEVEN STUDENTS

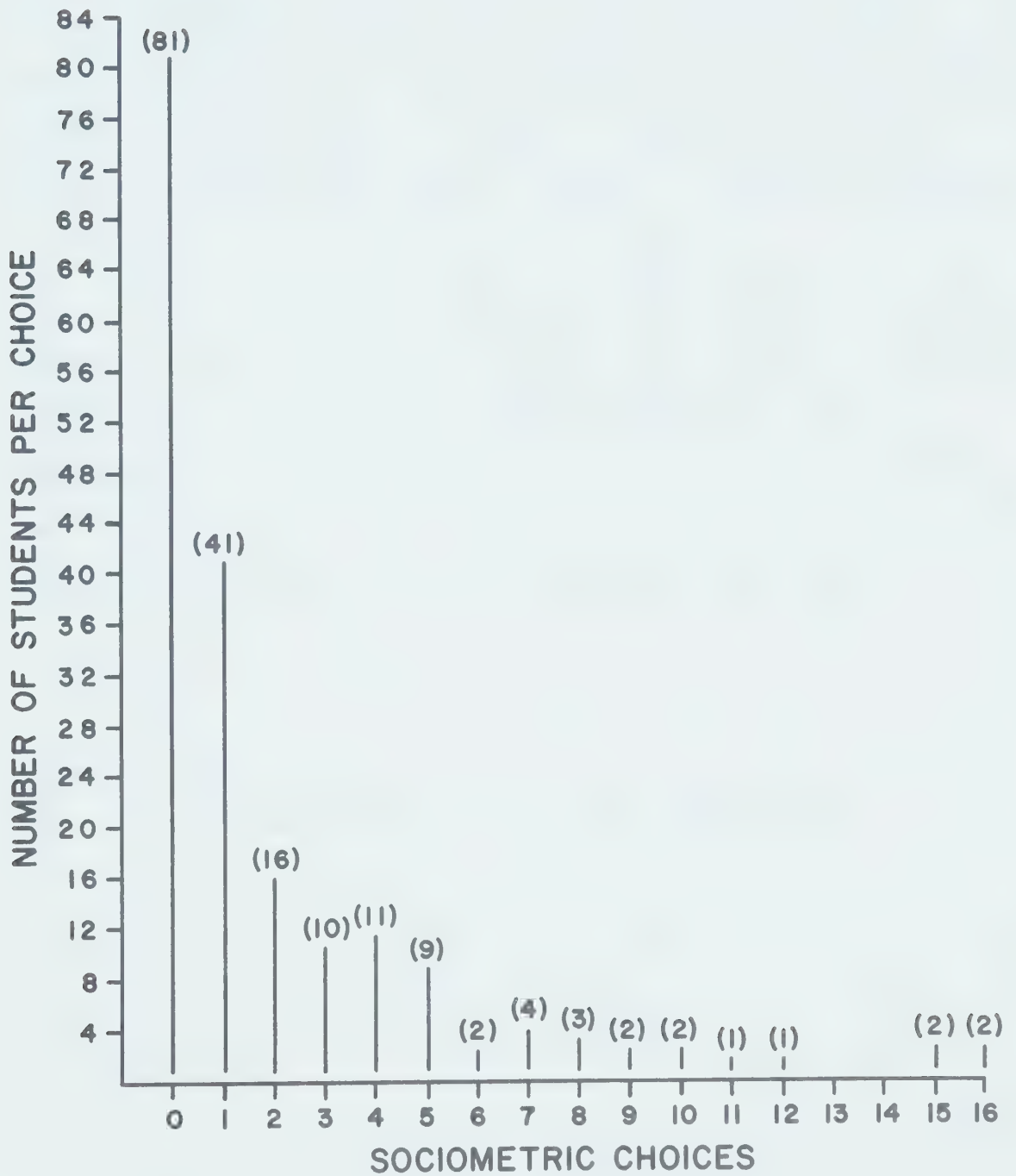


FIGURE 3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF NEGATIVE SOCIO-
METRIC CHOICES FOR GRADE ELEVEN STUDENTS

choices ($\chi^2 = 34.92$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$)³.

On the basis of the frequency distributions of positive and negative sociometric choices, then, the author defined a student receiving a ratio of three positive choices, for each negative choice, as being a 'socially preferred' subject. Conversely, a student receiving a ratio of three negative choices, for each positive choice, was defined as a 'socially non-preferred' subject.

There was no differentiation made between sexes, with respect to the definitions of 'socially preferred' and 'socially non-preferred' subject, due to the fact that sociometric choices were made on a heterosexual basis. The decision to select 30 socially preferred (15 males and 15 females) subjects, and 29 socially non-preferred (15 males and 14 females) subjects, was arbitrarily made by the author.

³Critical χ^2 (.001), $df = 1$, = 10.83 (two-tailed)

APPENDIX B

Personality Trait Index

The Personality-Trait Questionnaire

Instructions

In this questionnaire you will be presented with a number of adjectives which are descriptive of human behavior. Below each adjective are three scales. The first scale will represent how you feel (pleasant - unpleasant) about that human behavior. The second scale will allow you to describe yourself (like me - unlike me) with respect to that human characteristic. The third scale will allow you to describe how you feel your most preferred classmate rates with respect to that human characteristic.

Each of the three scales has 7 points.

If you circle number 1 this means that the adjective (human characteristic) is very pleasant, very much like you, and very much like your most preferred classmate.

If you circle number 2 this means that the adjective is somewhat pleasant, somewhat like you, and somewhat like your preferred classmate.

If you circle number 3 this means that the adjective is slightly pleasant, slightly like you, slightly like your preferred classmate.

If you circle number 4 this means you can not decide how to rate the adjective, or that the adjective seems unimportant or irrelevant to you.

If you circle number 5 this means that the adjective is slightly unpleasant, slightly unlike you, and slightly unlike your most preferred classmate.

If you circle number 6 this means that the adjective is somewhat

unpleasant, somewhat unlike you, and somewhat unlike your preferred classmate.

If you circle number 7 this means that the adjective is very unpleasant, very much unlike you, and very much unlike your preferred classmate.

As an example, if you had rated the following adjective, on the three scales in this fashion:

	<u>Aggressive</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike preferred classmate

You would have described this human characteristic as somewhat unpleasant, slightly like me, and slightly unlike my preferred classmate.

Before you begin, write the name of 'the' preferred classmate which you had selected for item 2 on page 1 of the booklet:

_____. This is the person you are to describe on the third (like preferred classmate-unlike preferred classmate) scale, for each adjective.

Work at fairly high speed. Do not puzzle over individual items. Make each item a separate and independent judgement. It is your first impression, your immediate feelings that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless.

(Circle the number on the scale)

<u>OPEN-MINDED</u>								
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>KIND</u>								
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>HUMOROUS</u>								
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>REASONABLE</u>								
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>HELPFUL</u>								
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

POLITE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

GOOD TEMPERED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

ADMIRABLE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

INTELLECTUAL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

INGENIOUS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

<u>SELF-RELIANT</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>TENDER</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>ATTENTIVE</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>COMPETENT</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike pre- ferred classmate

<u>RELAXED</u>							
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

AGREEABLE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

TIDY

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

COOL-HEADED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

OUTGOING

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

STRONG MINDED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

CAREFUL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

IDEALISTIC

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

OBEDIENT

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

FEARLESS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

MORALISTIC

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

UNCONVENTIONAL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

SHREWD

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

IMPULSIVE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

SELF RIGHTEOUS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

RESTLESS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

STRICT

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

DAY-DREAMER

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

DEPENDANT

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

CONFORMIST

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

OVERCAUTIOUS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

UNSKILLED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

INDECISIVE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

IMPRACTICAL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNPOISED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNENTERTAINING

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

STUBBORN

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

FRUSTRATED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

PURPOSELESS

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNCONGENIAL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

DOMINEERING

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

OVERCONFIDENT

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

HOT-HEADED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

IMMATURE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

RESENTFUL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

STINGY

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number of the scale)

GLOOMY

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

VAIN

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

IRRITATING

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

COLD

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNGRATEFUL

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

(Circle the number on the scale)

UNRELIABLE

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNFORGIVING

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

UNFRIENDLY

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

LOUD-MOUTHED

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

GREEDY

pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant
like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike me
like preferred classmate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unlike pre- ferred classmate

APPENDIX C

Interpersonal Discrimination Test

I.D.T.

This is a survey of the various ways people can describe one another. It is not a test, and so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers: We are going to ask you to describe some people you know. As you do this, please write legibly and express yourself as clearly as possible.

On the first three lines below write the names of three persons you know and generally like. On the next three lines write the names of three persons you know and generally dislike, or like least. Do not use relatives. List six different persons.

- (1) _____
- (2) _____
- (3) _____
- (4) _____
- (5) _____
- (6) _____

This list of names is for your convenience only. Throughout the rest of the questionnaire each person will be referred to by number only, that is, Person (1), Person (2), and so on. You may want to tear off this page in order to refer to it more easily as you complete the rest of the questionnaire. When you have finished you may keep or destroy this page, as you wish.

- 2 -

PERSON M

Now, think about yourself. We shall call you Person M. In the left hand column below write three qualities or characteristics you have which you like.

Next, write their opposites in the right hand column.

QUALITYOPPOSITE

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

- 3 -

PERSON M

Now, we want you to think of three characteristics or qualities you have which you do not like, or like least, and write them in the left hand column below. Again, write their opposites in the right hand column.

QUALITYOPPOSITE

1. _____

--

2. _____

--

3. _____

--

- 4 -

Now, turn back to Page 2 of this booklet and look at the first quality you listed for yourself. How would you compare the six people you have named and yourself on this first quality? We want you to show what people are similar on this quality, if there are any similar, and what people are different, if there are any that are different. In addition, if any are different, we want you to show how they are different.

For example, let us say that "honesty" is the quality in question. Now, if you thought that there was really no difference between everyone, that yourself and the six others were equally "honest". then you would have one group and would represent this by merely putting everyone's number in one box.

1	M	5	6	2	3	4
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Or let us say that you thought Persons 1, 3, 4, and M (yourself) were "honest" or more "honest", and that Persons 2, 5, and 6 were not "honest" or less "honest". Then you would have two groups and would represent this by dividing the rectangle into two boxes:

1	4	3	M	2	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

- 5 -

Or what if you thought that Persons 3, 5, and M (yourself) were very "honest", Persons 1 and 2 were less "honest", and that Persons 4 and 6 were least "honest". Then you would have three groups and would represent this by dividing the rectangle into three boxes:

3 M 5	1 2	4 6
-----------------	----------	----------

In the same way, you could also use four, five, six or even seven boxes, if you like, to compare everyone. As a last example, let us say that none of the six others and yourself were alike, that you were all different, that Person 2 was most "honest", Person 1 next most "honest", Person 5 next, then Person M (yourself), then Person 3, then Person 4, and finally Person 6 the least "honest" of all. You would then use seven boxes to represent this:

2	1	5	M	3	4	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

In other words, you can divide this group of seven people in any way you like by using one, two, three, four, five, six, or seven boxes. The idea is that if people are alike, then they should be in the same box, and if they are different, they should be in different boxes. Each box should represent less of the quality and more of its opposite as you move from left to right.

Now, go back and compare everyone, the six others and yourself, on each of the six qualities you used to describe yourself. (pages 2 and 3).

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